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ABSTRACT

Life Skills are problem solving behaviors appropriately and responsibly used in the management of one's life. This book is a collection of papers on the theory, practice and evaluation of Life Skills, and an expanded version of the fifth edition of "Life Skills: A Course In Applied Problem Solving." It includes essays on the purposes and goals of Life Skills training as well as a description of a Life Skills course, complete with specific lesson plans. One of the articles discusses training of a life skills coach, while several others are devoted to the study of problem solving in the Life Skills course. The final articles discuss evaluation of student progress and of the course itself. (Author/HMV)

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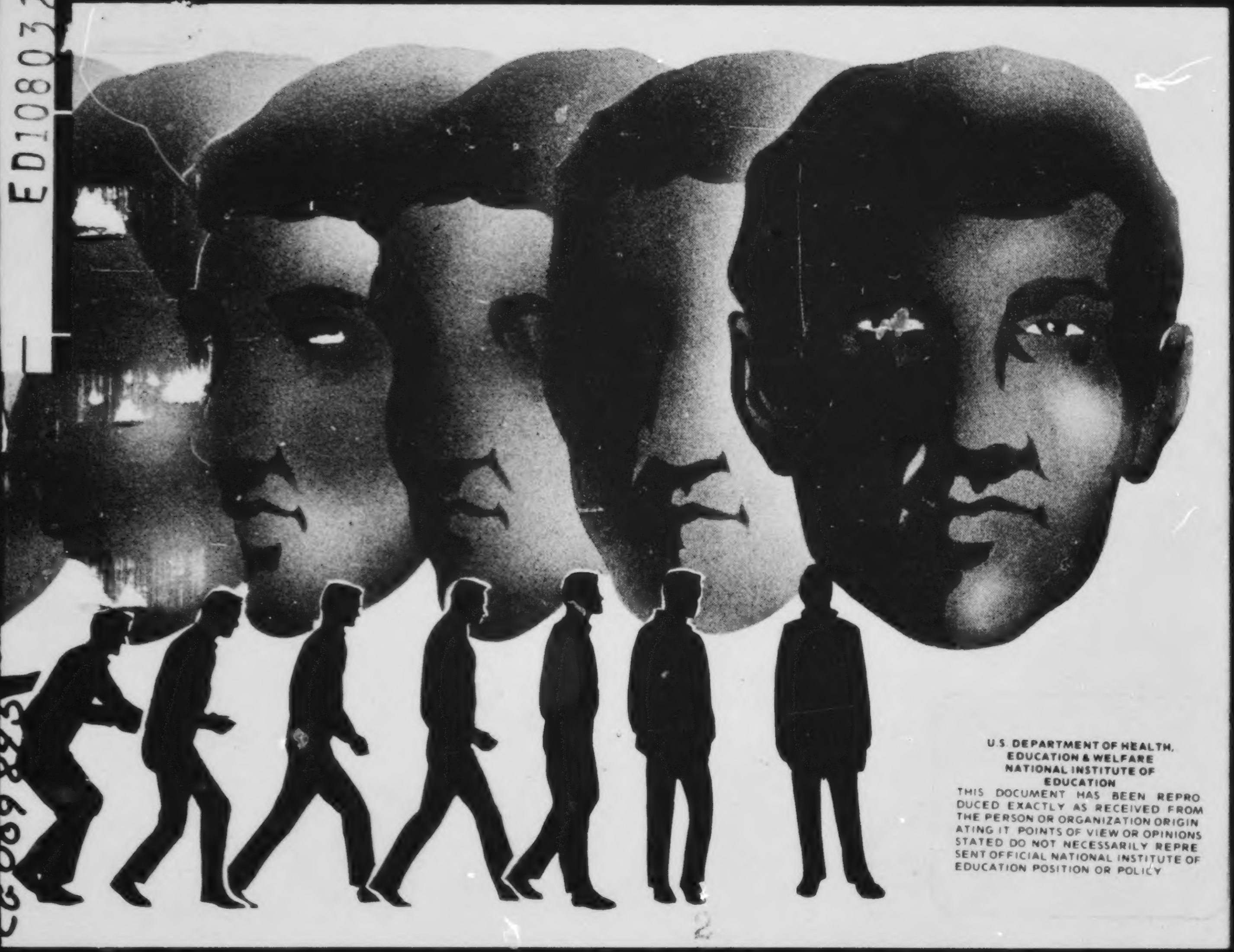

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READINGS IN LIFE SKILLS

TRAINING RESEARCH AND DEVELOPMENT STATION
DEPARTMENT OF MANPOWER AND IMMIGRATION
PRINCE ALBERT, SASKATCHEWAN, CANADA

LIFE SKILLS SERIES

Life Skills Coaching Manual

The Problems and Needed Life Skills of Adolescents

The Dynamics of Life Skills Coaching

Life Skills Course for Corrections

Readings in Life Skills

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FOREWORD

A number of authors have contributed essays on the theory, practice and evaluation of Life Skills in this publication, an enlarged version of the fifth edition of Life Skills: A Course In Applied Problem Solving published by Saskatchewan NewStart Incorporated in 1972. Grateful acknowledgement is made to Vernon W. Mullen for editing the book.

Saskatchewan NewStart Incorporated is sponsored by the Saskatchewan Department of Education and the Canada Department of Regional Economic Expansion but terminated its experimental activities in 1972. At the same time, however, the Training Research and Development Station of the Department of Manpower and Immigration was established to continue to experiment with and develop new methods of adult training and counselling as well as undertake new experimental initiatives in human resource development.

The publication of this book was made possible by a grant from the Department of Regional Economic Expansion to Saskatchewan NewStart Incorporated.

September, 1973

D. Stuart Conger, Director,
Training Research and Development Station

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LIFE SKILLS TRAINING - A SOCIAL INVENTION

- D. S. Conger

Forecasts of the future indicate the need for individuals, social institutions and society to change their ways at a much more rapid rate than in the past. The methods of achieving such change will not result simply from recognizing the advantages or even necessity to change - history has amply demonstrated that. Nor will the changes come simply from technological changes, although the invention of the printing press, radio, television and the automobile have resulted in major changes in life styles.

It is increasingly recognized that social inventions are required to effect the human and social changes that will improve our present society and build the future society.

A social invention may be defined as a law, procedure or organization that affects the ways in which people relate to themselves or others. Defining a social invention as a law, procedure or organization serves to emphasize that it is a social mechanism rather than simply an idea or theory. This is not to deny the importance of theory, because most, if not all, inventions are based upon theoretical formulations. Providing the original idea may be the most creative aspect of any invention, but it is not considered to be an invention itself.

Life Skills training is an example of a social invention which is based on some very important theoretical formulations used in creating the course.

The initial theoretical formulation for Life Skills training was made by Winthrop Adkins and Sydney Rosenberg when they were employed by the Y.M.C.A. in Bedford-Styvesant, New York City. In their proposal for a youth training project entitled Training Resources for Youth (TRY), the two psychologists set forth their ideas quite explicitly. This was in 1965.

It was not until 1968 that a determined effort was made to prepare a course to teach Life Skills. In November of that year, Saskatchewan NewStart in Prince Albert formed a task force under the direction of Douglas Toombs to prepare plans to create a Life Skills course along the lines suggested by Adkins and Rosenberg. The initial draft course was prepared by a group in Washington, D.C., but the design laid down by the New York psychologists was not faithfully followed, and the result was more a series of group dynamics experiences than of truly life skills training.

In mid 1969, a Life Skills division was created by Saskatchewan NewStart, and Ralph Himsl was appointed manager of the project which included course writers, coaches and researchers. In this way the division was given the resources to create, conduct, evaluate and re-develop the life skills course. The overall design of the original life skills lesson plan was observed for a year, but as lessons went through several generations, new concepts were formulated and put into effect. Himsl and his colleagues added an evaluation phase to each lesson to involve the students actively and constructively in the evaluation of what they had learned and how they had used what they had learned. In addition, methods of behavioural rehearsal were incorporated in the objective enquiry phase of a lesson.

This addition had the effect of making the lessons behavioural as well as cognitive. The change was an important improvement because the original formulations expected the students to gain only information from multi-media kits, whereas the NewStart Life Skills course intended that they not only get information but competence through required behaviour rehearsals called skill drills.

A further innovation was the life skills coaching. Faced with the problem of training teachers to deal with attitudes and behaviours rather than simply knowledge on the one hand, and their relative lack of constructive experience with disadvantaged people on the other, Saskatchewan NewStart decided that it might be more appropriate to train mature, experienced, intelligent adults to conduct the course. The name "coach" was chosen because coaches are associated with skill training and they use a wide range of instructional and motivational techniques in their training programs. Furthermore, the term coach does not have the second class connotation of many of the titles given paraprofessionals. This work with coaches led ultimately to the preparation of a Life Skills Coach Training course.

To invent or prepare the course was one thing, but to have it adopted and used was another. Social inventions are notoriously slow in becoming adopted by social institutions. It has been estimated that it takes 35 years for the average educational innovation to be used in half the schools. Someone once said that it is easier to move a graveyard than to change a curriculum. The history of medical innovations illustrates the great debate and rancour that can develop between professionals about certain new developments such as cleanliness in lying-in hospitals, prefrontal lobotomies and anti-toxins. The same resistances to change have taken place with the Life Skills course. Some individuals and institutions saw the value early and moved positively to adopt and adapt the course. Others have taken other views.

The course was prepared because Saskatchewan NewStart believed in the idea and little was done to try to sell it to any particular institution for use, although several applications were considered. Most prominent of these was the Canada Manpower Training Program, and in 1971 the Department of Manpower and Immigration did decide that the Life Skills course might be tried experimentally in seven provinces in the federally funded Manpower Program. Following the experimental phase the course began to be used on a widespread basis.

Two other types of organizations saw potential in the program: the Canadian Penitentiary Service and the West-Brandt Foundation of Louisiana. Both organizations contracted with Saskatchewan NewStart to prepare detailed plans for Life Skills courses: in one case for correctional institutions, and in the other case for high school seniors and other adolescents. Soon thereafter, the Canadian Mental Health Association also adopted it for experimental use as did various welfare agencies for their clientele.

Another social invention - the Local Initiatives Program - was also instrumental in disseminating the course because it provided additional funds to certain organizations which then used the Life Skills course in their programs. Exemplary in this connection is the Toronto Northeastern Y.W.C.A., which conducted Life Skills training for four groups of women in the city, and in the process did much proselyting of the course to many social agencies. Several types of organizations are now inventing new units to continue to offer Life Skills programs.

Thus, the social invention of the Life Skills course has required ancillary inventions to become a reality - the invention of the course, the coach, the coach course, the creation or adaptation of organizations, and programs and structures to offer the course.

LIFE SKILLS IN MANPOWER TRAINING

- R. Himsl

The intensive studies of the sixties into the causes and nature of poverty enabled people to see the subject with better eyes. Until Oscar Lewis hinted at its complexity by coining the phrase, "the culture of poverty", much public opinion and policy concerning poverty depended upon economic interpretations, which hold that the most distinctive feature of the disadvantaged is their lack of money: give people adequate jobs and poverty disappears. Whether or not one chooses to accept Lewis' concept of a culture of poverty, his suggestion of complications in the problem confronting the disadvantaged, sound a warning to those looking for simple and quick remedies.

The rapid post war growth of industry and business, both in size and diversity, made the unsupported provision of jobs as a solution to the problem of poverty more and more difficult. Often, attempts to create jobs for people in a local area were frustrated by the arrival of skilled people from other parts of the country who filled the newly created positions, leaving the prospects for the local residents relatively unchanged. Jobs alone were not enough. Governments soon found that large segments of the population required additional trades training and upgrading to meet real and imposed prerequisites for entry into trades, and they prepared the needed training. Such training programs, simple in principle, but elaborate in design, indicated a shift in emphasis: the government which once saw the problem as an economic one and provided an appropriate solution, still saw the problem as an economic one, but one requiring a new component, training.

As the government job training and upgrading programs became operational, the response of those who enrolled contained some surprises: total enrolments increased greatly and yet people dropped from training before completion at disappointingly high rates. Why?

A look at manpower training from the point of view of the adult student yielded some helpful discoveries. Many disadvantaged, on returning to the training institution found themselves in a situation little changed from the one they had left many years before. The texts which they studied were the very ones children used; often, the school

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R. Himsl was formerly Manager, Life Skills Division, Saskatchewan NewStart Incorporated, and is now Superintendent of Separate Schools, Lethbridge, Alberta.

made few adaptations to their adulthood, which served only to reinforce the inferiority they felt as a result of youthful failure; they lacked communication skills and confidence, and did not convey their uncertainties to those in charge; sometimes, overcome with personal problems and unable to discuss them with people in an essentially inhospitable training environment, they chose an easy out and stopped training. This response to training often fitted the pattern of the individual's work history.

The disadvantaged person seemed to lack not only technical and vocational skills, but some kind of coping skills as well. Could he but convey his uncertainties and dissatisfactions to those in charge in school or at work, his communication might have brought changes in the undesirable condition; could he but describe his personal problem adequately to a representative of a social agency, he might have found short term assistance. If he had received some training in problem solving, he might have examined other solutions to his problems as alternatives to quitting. The skills which these descriptions imply have been described as life skills.

A Skills Axis. If successful functioning in society depends upon two sets of skills, technical/vocational or professional skills, as one set, and personal problem solving skills as another set, it becomes possible to describe groups of people in terms of the presence or absence of these skills. In Fig. 1, the vertical line represents a range of problem solving life skills, with the extreme of no skills at the lower end of the line, and the extreme of many at the upper end. The horizontal line represents the salable technical/vocational, or professional skills. The left end of the line represents the point of complete absence of any salable skills, and the right end represents the possession of many salable skills.

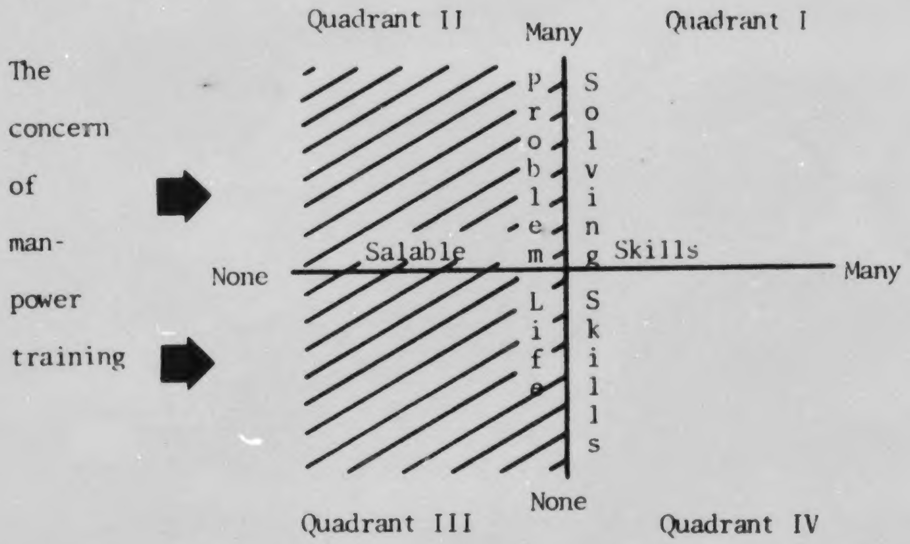

Figure 1. A Skills Axis

Rough plottings demonstrate the kind of people in each quadrant of Fig. 1. Quadrant I for example, describes people whom society sees generally as successful; they have salable skills, and seem to have many problem solving life skills. Quadrant I probably describes the mayor of the town, the union leader, successful tradesmen and professional people, and anyone who has steady employment and who uses himself and the community well.

Quadrant II describes people who do not have many, or any salable skills, but who cope well with those problems life brings them. Perhaps Quadrant II contains the recent high school graduate, or even the recent university graduate, especially if he took his degree in the liberal arts. Quadrant II describes the housewife who has raised her children, and still vigorous, seeks some kind of employment; however, she took her training many years ago and time has changed the skill requirements for the job in which she once worked. It describes too, the many people who have faced the realization that events have turned against them. Living memory recalls the blacksmith and the harness-maker; a search of the more recent times reveals the passing of the railroad fireman. The development of new office routines supported by electronic equipment reduced to an honor guard the host of clerks once required; the future promises more of the same. The personal problem solving skills of persons described by this quadrant of the diagram, may enable them to develop new salable skills.

Quadrant III includes people whom we have come to describe as disadvantaged. They have few job opportunities because they lack specialized skills, and they lack the personal problem solving skills which permit them to exploit, or indeed recognize the capabilities they have. Manpower training programs direct their efforts at people in Quadrants II and III; they have greatest success with people in Quadrant II.

The fourth quadrant includes people who have salable skills, but fail to deal effectively with their personal problems. Every community has seen the wasting of a skilled mechanic or doctor unable to gain control over his thirst for alcohol. Often highly trained and talented people, their personal problems compounded by an inability to seek and use help, reduce their effectiveness, leading often to loss of job.

Characteristics of the Skills Axis. The meaning of the skills axis increases if the user considers that each person has his own axis. This means that each person must determine for himself, in large part at least, what represents realizable goals for the development of his own problem solving abilities, and for the development of salable skills. Each success or failure in life exacts a new interpretation of the axis for the person.

Quadrants II and IV represent situations of instability. The person in Quadrant II must develop some salable skill or he will come to see himself as personally ineffective, and others may share that view; unless he possesses great strength of character, he may shift to the third quadrant enclosed by the skills axis. The development of salable skills, or the productive use of skills he already possesses, moves him of course, into Quadrant I.

Quadrant IV includes people likely struggling with a potentially harmful situation. Because they see themselves as lacking adequate problem solving life skills, or because they do in fact lack them, their effectiveness on the job probably decreases, and unless help comes to move them into the first quadrant, they may slip into Quadrant III with complete or near complete dependence on others.

A Manpower Training Axis. The Skills Axis, descriptive in broad terms of the skills required for effective functioning in society, assists in the identification of training needs, and in the description of a complete manpower training program.

Traditionally, manpower training has met the need described by the horizontal line, i.e., the need for training in marketable skills. Its main objective, therefore, has been to move people horizontally, from left to right. In consequence, persons in Quadrant II move into Quadrant I, a desirable and stable situation; persons in Quadrant III move into Quadrant IV, perhaps a temporarily productive, but essentially unstable employment situation, as shown in Fig. 2. Such a training program assumes one or all of a number of things about problem solving life skills: it may assume that people already have problem solving life skills; or it may assume that they can learn these skills by themselves; or it may assume that economic effectiveness will eliminate the need for such skills; or it may assume that people cannot become more effective in handling their personal problems; or it may assume they acquire them as they learn the salable skills; or finally, it may assume that training in such skills is outside their concern.

A Life Skills Program implies that each of these assumptions is false in whole or in part. A Life Skills Program says that people can benefit from training in life skills because many people do not have problem solving life skills; they can learn them by themselves, but they can also learn them from others more effectively; economic effectiveness does not necessarily mean that people have many life skills; and people can become more effective in the handling of their personal problems. It says, too, that a purposive, structured program of training in these skills is a needed part of a complete manpower development program.

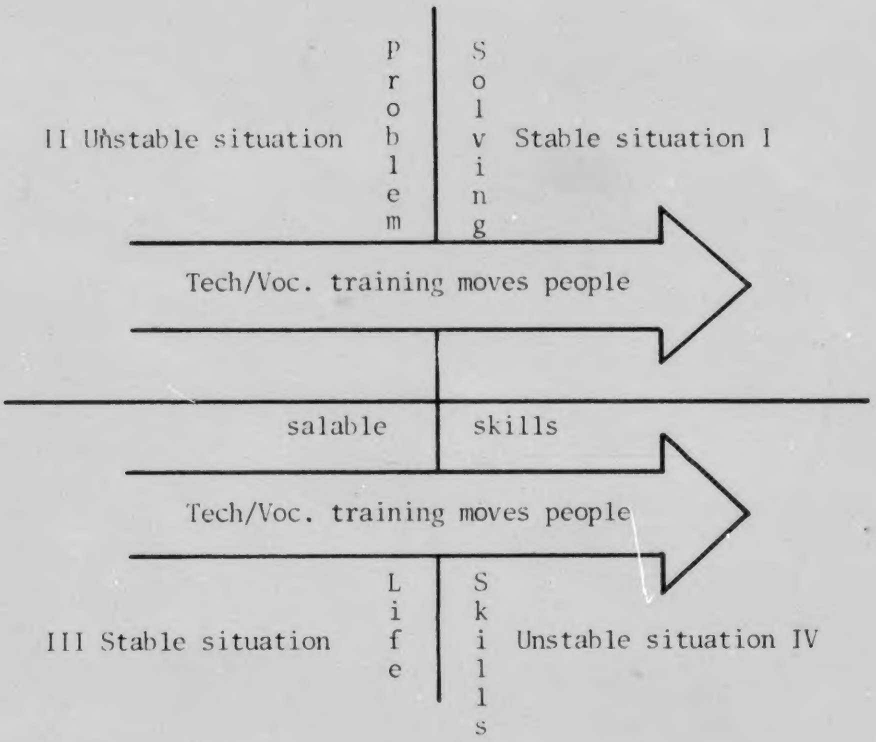
Problem
Solving
II Unstable situation
Stable situation I
Tech/Voc. training moves people
salable
skills
Tech/Voc. training moves people
Life
Skills
III Stable situation
Unstable situation IV

Fig. 2. The Typical Manpower Training Program.

A Complete Manpower Training Program. A Life Skills Program by itself does not provide an adequate manpower training program; by itself, it merely substitutes one form of instability on a Manpower Training Axis for another. When a manpower training program deals only with salable skills, it helps its clients move from Quadrant III to Quadrant IV; on the other hand, a manpower training program providing training only in problem solving life skills, would prepare its clients to move from Quadrant III to Quadrant II; in a sense, it would fire him up and give him but a limited capability to do anything. When a student takes Life Skills Training combined with the elements already in the manpower training program, he has an opportunity to move from the stable, but undesirable Quadrant III of the Skills Axis to Quadrant II by virtue of his Life Skills training, and from Quadrant II to Quadrant I by virtue of his technical/vocational training, as shown in Fig. 3.

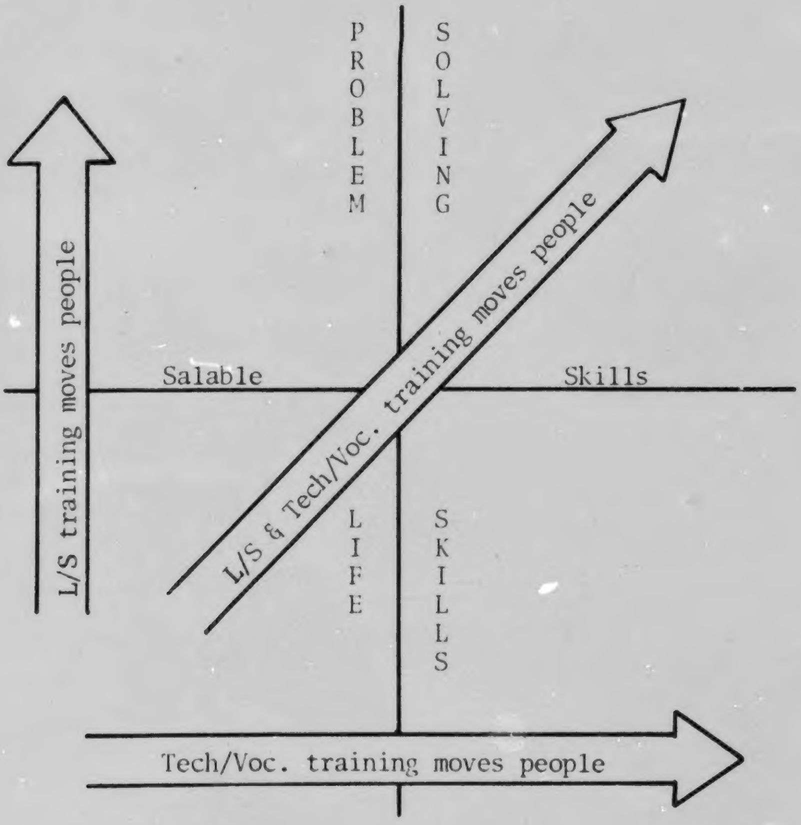
PROBLEM
SOLVING
L/S training moves people
L/S & Tech/Voc. training moves people
Salable
Skills
LIFE
SKILLS
Tech/Voc. training moves people

Fig. 3. A Complete Manpower Training Axis.

Summary. A Life Skills Course in applied problem solving strengthens a manpower training program. Governments have often attempted to restructure the local work environment to provide jobs for unemployed and the disadvantaged in particular areas. Industrial incentive programs in the form of tax concessions and direct grants represent such efforts. Often, the planners of these programs find their expectations frustrated by the arrival of aggressive, capable people from outside the local area who move in to take up the newly created jobs, leaving the local unemployment picture relatively unchanged. Manpower training programs seek to forestall this result. A Life Skills Course, linked to academic and technical/vocational training, provides members of the local population with the problem solving life skills characteristic of those people who use themselves confidently and effectively in their contacts with others.

LIFE SKILLS: A COURSE IN APPLIED PROBLEM SOLVING

- R. Himsl

Life Skills Defined. Life Skills, precisely defined, means problem solving behaviors appropriately and responsibly used in the management of personal affairs. As problem solving behaviors, life skills liberate in a way, since they include a relatively small class of behaviors usable in many life situations. Appropriate use requires an individual to adapt the behaviors to time and place. Responsible use requires maturity, or accountability. And as behaviors used in the management of personal affairs, the life skills apply to five areas of life responsibility identified as self, family, leisure, community and job.

The Relevance of Life Skills. A description of the disadvantaged population establishes the relevance of life skills. Study of the literature, and direct observation reveal that many disadvantaged have a complex, interlocking set of inadequate behaviors. Some lack the skills needed to identify problems, to recognize and organize relevant information, to describe reasonable courses of action, and to foresee the consequences; they often fail to act on a rationally identified course of action, submitting rather to actions based on emotion or authority. Often they do not benefit from their experience since they do not evaluate the results of their actions once taken, and display fatalistic rationalizations of the consequences. They lack the self-confidence to develop their abilities, and have low, or often surprisingly unrealistic aspiration levels.

Many disadvantaged have low levels of participation in the society surrounding them; few belong to voluntary organizations; the affairs of the larger society do not attract their participation. They lack effective ways of seeking help from each other and from agencies already in existence, although some form of public assistance provides much of their income. Long periods of unemployment, or frequent job changes mark their work history. They have ineffective interpersonal relationships and lack basic communication skills; they do not use feedback effectively, often thinking of it as hurtful personal criticism. As a result of characteristic marital instability, women often raise the children by themselves. Alcoholism and the use of drugs affect the lives of others. Many find their lives beset by combinations of more than one such handicap.

Assumptions About Life Skills. A course aimed at training people in the life skills, implies certain assumptions. In order to have a Life Skills Course, the life skills must exist as identifiable and describable behaviors. In addition, it requires that some people already have these skills and that they can demonstrate them; it requires that others can imitate them, and through practice, apply them in their own life situations, changing their behaviors from what they once were, and so, learn. The situations which compose the training, necessarily consist of samples of life; this limitation rests on the assumption that students transfer their skills from the life situation simulated in the training, to the problem situations encountered in their own lives.

THE LIFE SKILLS COURSE

In achieving its objective, the Life Skills Course provides the students with competence in the use of problem solving skills to manage their personal affairs as suggested by the terms, self, family, leisure, community and job. The Life Skills students make themselves more effective by practicing those interpersonal skills which they lack because of an accident of birth, failure of environment, or rejection, for whatever reason, of the opportunities provided by society. The practice and related studies assist the student to see his strengths, and provide him with a realistic and hopeful assessment of his weaknesses. Although the training in the course concentrates on behaviors, it does not discount the effects that these new found competencies have on the attitudes of the adult student toward himself and those around him.

Assumptions about Methodology. To achieve the objective, the student starts at his present level or style of behavior and increases his array of effective behaviors until he can handle the complications of living a productive and satisfying life. He practices specific, identifiable skills of problem solving in life situations. The ability of the student to apply these specific, goal directed behaviors enables him to refashion a picture of himself as a person with demonstrated abilities, and as a person with a new value to himself and those around him. Obviously then, the Life Skills Course uses two truisms as the source of its methodology: first, learning starts at the learner's current level of functioning and his understanding of present reality and second, the attainment of long range goals requires the mastery of many specific intervening goals, whose integration by the individual leads to an apparent and significant behavioral change.

The Concept of Skill in Life Skills. The Life Skills Course recognizes that true learning, behavioral change, occurs when the learner has a clear understanding of his goals, a clear description of the new behavior, and an understanding of those conditions which make the behavior acceptable. The concept of these new sought-for behaviors as skills, makes a happy fit with the recognition of learning as changed behavior.

A skill has these characteristics: skills have the connotation of clarity in description; they have a definite purpose; they have certain standards by which people judge their acceptability. One need only think of such a simple expression of skill as the making of an omelette to describe the qualities of the concept of skill development as a means of accomplishing changed behavior.

The Life Skills Course Defined. A great part of the activities in the Life Skills Course takes place in a learning group composed of 12 - 15 students and their learning guide, called a coach. The coach has received special training in techniques appropriate to the course. He has skills which he uses to develop the learning situation described in the lesson, the fundamental Life Skills Course unit. During the course, the students participate in about 60 of these lessons, the exact number depending in part upon the requirements of the students. The coach has four main sources which he encourages his students to exploit in their search for meaningful behavioral change: he has the resources, the skills and experiences which the students themselves bring to the learning group; he has his own experiences and training; he has the resources of the community on which he can call; and he has the written materials which set out the content, the intermediate goals for behavioral change, and the final course goal of developing effective, problem solving individuals. In sum, a Life Skills Course consists of the coach and his training, the student and his experiences in his community, the written materials containing the content and course objectives, and the resources in the community.

The Content of the Life Skills Course. Five categories of life generated the content for the Life Skills Course: Self, Family, Leisure, Community and Job. An examination of the students' life experiences using these categories, produced a number of typical problem situations which lent themselves to development as learning experiences for the students. In the area of Self for example, study showed that the students often had distorted views of themselves. They exaggerated their lack of skills or they had little understanding of their abilities relative to other people; they showed apprehension in non-threatening situations; they allowed other people to dominate them. The Life Skills Lessons dealing with Self address these problems and others of a like nature.

In the area of Family, the students showed similar lack of primary skills: for example, they did not discipline their children consistently, sometimes resorting to severe corporal punishment, at one extreme, and bribery for good behavior at the other; they knew little of the need for planning for the care of their survivors in the event of death; many lacked the skills to give their children helpful information about sex; often, they failed to come to mutually satisfactory solutions to quarrels in marriage. Again, a number of typical problem situations lent themselves to adaptation to a Life Skills lesson.

An examination of their life style from the point of view of Leisure identified another set of problems. Typically, the Life Skills student had a limited array of leisure time activities. For many, alcohol dominated in one way or another, much of their leisure time activity. The Life Skills Course responds to this limited use of leisure time by providing the student with experiences in which he exploits the wider range of activities which his community provides; it includes the planning skills often lacking in this context.

In the area of Community, students showed limited participation in the life of the larger society. Few had memberships in any voluntary agencies; all had dropped out of school; many had police records; some spent time in penal institutions. Many had drawn heavily on the services of public agencies such as public health, welfare, and the Canada Manpower Centre. Problems typical of these situations provide the basis for structuring Life Skills lessons in the Community area.

Consideration of the area related to the Job showed that the students often had little knowledge of ways many people use to find employment. They had only vague notions of what employers want in the way of maintaining effective working relations on the staff. Many did not accept criticism well, and found that when called upon to give it to others, say as a part of a supervisory responsibility, they could not do it. Typically, many of the Life Skills students do not know how to present themselves in the most favorable light; they fail to give a full account of their work experience, or if they do give it, they present it badly. Others experienced frustration because they have set unrealistic employment goals for themselves. The lessons of the Life Skills Course dealing with the area of Job examine problem situations of this sort.

Yet different social situations yield different problems with different emphases. The Life Skills Coaching Manual contains 61 lesson plans which draw from these five areas; however, the nature of the Life Skills group would affect the coach's choice of lessons. Suppose, for example, the Life Skills group consisted of young, single people: such a group would bridle at the use of many lessons dealing with the family. A Life Skills Course conducted with clients at a half way house, on the other hand, might require an especial emphasis on the development of skills for handling the fact of a criminal record in various social and occupational situations. Though the Life Skills Coaching Manual contains detailed descriptions of 61 lesson plans, special circumstances may indicate the desirability of dropping some of these; but the lesson model, with its prescription of skill development in a real life setting provides the trained coach with a means of creating new lessons when the needs of his group require it.

The Life Skills Coaching Manual provides a pre-planned set of experiences in which the students apply problem solving techniques to the problems suggested by these five areas; however, the students also bring to the Life Skills groups an array of personal problems unique to them. When these problems lend themselves to handling in the Life Skills group, they become a part of the course proper.

THE LIFE SKILLS PROCESS

The Life Skills Course integrates the content described above and three process dimensions: a student response to content dimension, a student use of group dimension, and a problem solving dimension.

The Student Response to Content Dimension. In responding along this dimension, the student may react first in any one of its three domains, the cognitive, the affective, or the psychomotor. When he reacts in the cognitive or knowing domain, he might for example, rephrase a sentence in his own words. Or he might summarize the happenings of a lesson; if so, he might combine the rather simple act of recalling, with the more complex act of synthesizing. Or, he might relate the discussion in a lesson to an experience in his home life thereby contrasting and comparing. Or, he might link the items in one lesson to those in another, thereby showing relationships. Any manipulation of course content such as repetition or recall, explanation, analysis, application, synthesis or evaluation, represents a cognitive or knowing response.

Students also respond on this dimension with affect or feeling. This affective response may occur before, at the same time, or after the cognitive or knowing response; indeed, it may be characteristic of the disadvantaged to hold knowledge in low esteem, in which case the initial reaction might occur in the affective domain. Whatever the exact sequence, the Life Skills Course recognizes the affective reaction and encourages its expression and control. The coach encourages the students, and gives them direct assistance and example in the expression of feeling. At the worst, unexpressed or suppressed feelings inhibit the development of behavioral change and prevent the student from facing himself and others. At the best, expressed feelings open the student to new understandings of those around him, helping him recognize that others have the same fears and uncertainties he has, and yet, manage to function in spite of it. Furthermore, the student soon comes to the realization that the mere expression of feelings often assists in controlling them. The range of a student's affective response is wide. At one extreme, for example, he may blurt out that some things look stupid to him, and reject lessons by walking out, or he may stay but participate passively. At the other extreme, he may speak "loyally" of the group and the activities of the lessons; he may defend the activities of the course and the group against outside criticism and enthusiastically tell others what he has learned. Though such expressions of feeling and attitude demand a great deal of the coach, he responds quickly to them, helping the members of the group accept their own feelings and those of others.

When the student responds in the third category of behaviors, the psychomotor or acting category, he uses his body: he may stand up, move about as required in trust exercises, go onto the street to conduct interviews, go with his group on excursions, demonstrate new behaviors to others, draw a self portrait, or participate in role playing situations. The student's psychomotor responses often provide the most obvious evidence of his full participation in the activities of the lesson. His cognitive, or knowing manipulation of the content provide him with a necessary "factual" base; his affective, or feeling response to content expresses his will to face the consequences of the new knowledge and its effect on him; his psychomotor response represents his commitment to action.

Though these categories provide a basic dimension on which to describe student response to the course content (see Figure 1), not every lesson requires equal response in each domain; most lessons, however require some response from the student in each of these broad categories.

The Student Use of Group Dimension. The second dimension describes the purpose of the learning group. The student uses the group to practice new behaviors. He uses feedback and criticism from the group to modify behaviors new to him. He studies individuals in his group as models for new behaviors, and he uses the group as a setting in which to develop his skills of self expression. The group affects its members most when they have developed a strong sense of mutual trust and an interest in helping each other through the lessons. The group provides both acceptance and challenge, and seeks an essential balance between the two: all acceptance makes everyone feel good, but stunts improvement in skills and development of problem solving capabilities; all challenge makes people react defensively and become more set in ineffective behaviors.

Students respond at three rather distinct levels on this dimension. At a first level of group use, the student continues interpersonal behaviors which in the past have met his needs. If previously withdrawn, for example, at a first or safe level of response he continues to withdraw; if previously a bully, he continues this behavior; or if he in the past tried always to harmonize the group activities, he continues this. At a second level, the level of careful group use, he ventures into the practice of behaviors new to him. He models his new behaviors after those of the coach and other members of the group. He draws the attention of other group members to this new behavior, seeking support and acknowledgement. At the upper edge of this level, he tries the behavior with strangers. At the third level of development, the level of risky group use, he asks directly for criticisms of the new behaviors, seeking to refine them and make them more effective. He gives feedback to others; he ventures opinion which he knows others in the group might find startling from him. He expresses strong feelings to other members of the group, or he objects to some procedures the coach has used. On the use of group dimension, the student extends the range and increases the effectiveness of his interpersonal behaviors.

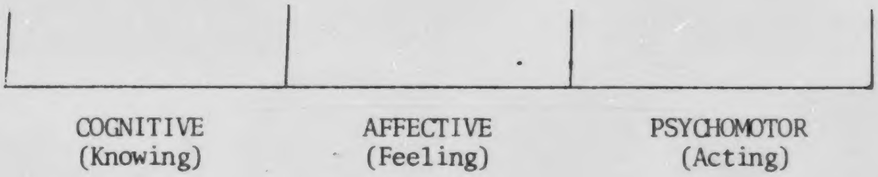

Fig. 1. Student Response to Content.

The student then, has three levels of activity in the learning group: the level of safe group use, the level of careful group use, and the level of risky group use. These add to each other: behaviors characteristic of the third level do not replace those of the second or the first level, nor do those in the second level replace those of the first level. The student retains the safe group use behaviors that serve him well; to assist him in his necessary learnings, the coach encourages him to add to his behaviors the more venturesome ones characteristic of the two upper levels.

The model now has a second dimension, (see Figure 2). The more effective the learner, the more he uses all responses named on the horizontal axis, and the more he uses the behavioral categories named on the vertical axis.

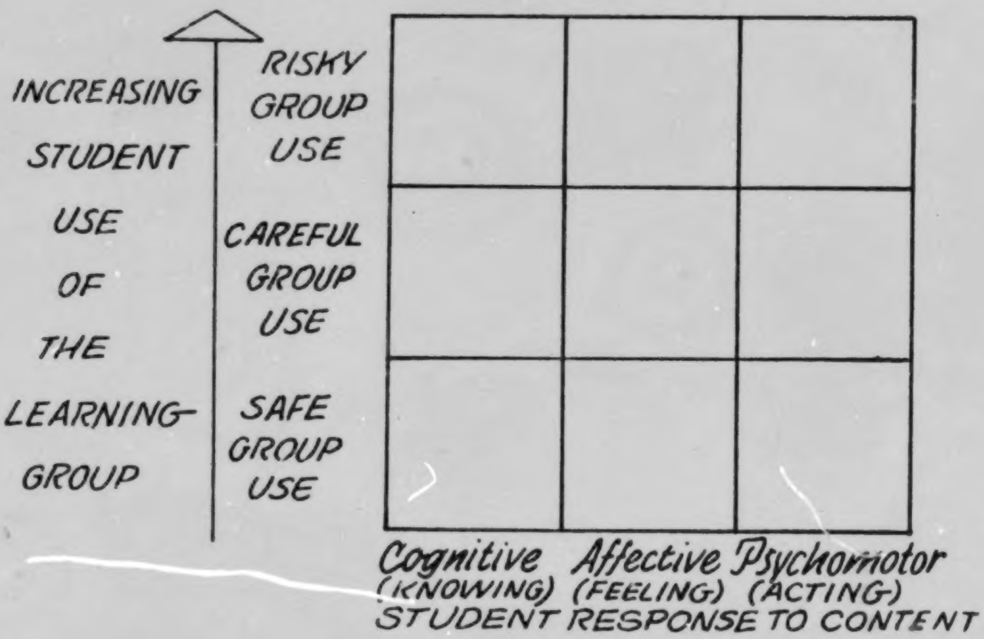
INCREASING STUDENT USE OF THE LEARNING-GROUP
RISKY GROUP USE
CAREFUL GROUP USE
SAFE GROUP USE
Cognitive (KNOWING)
Affective (FEELING)
Psychomotor (ACTING)
STUDENT RESPONSE TO CONTENT

FIG. 2 – THE DIMENSIONS OF STUDENT RESPONSE TO CONTENT AND USE OF THE LEARNING GROUP

The Problem Solving Dimension. The learner could use both the knowledge and student use of group dimensions to their fullest, and still achieve none of the objectives of the Life Skills Course. The complete Life Skills Process/Content Model requires a third dimension. The Life Skills student uses a whole array of problem solving behaviors. In gross terms, he recognizes a problem situation, defines a problem, chooses an alternative solution, implements it, and evaluates the result; of course, each of these processes contains many sub-processes. As he matures in the course, the student increases the array of the problem solving behaviors he uses, until ideally, he uses them as the situation requires. This array of behavior provides the third dimension. Figure 3 represents the complete process model.

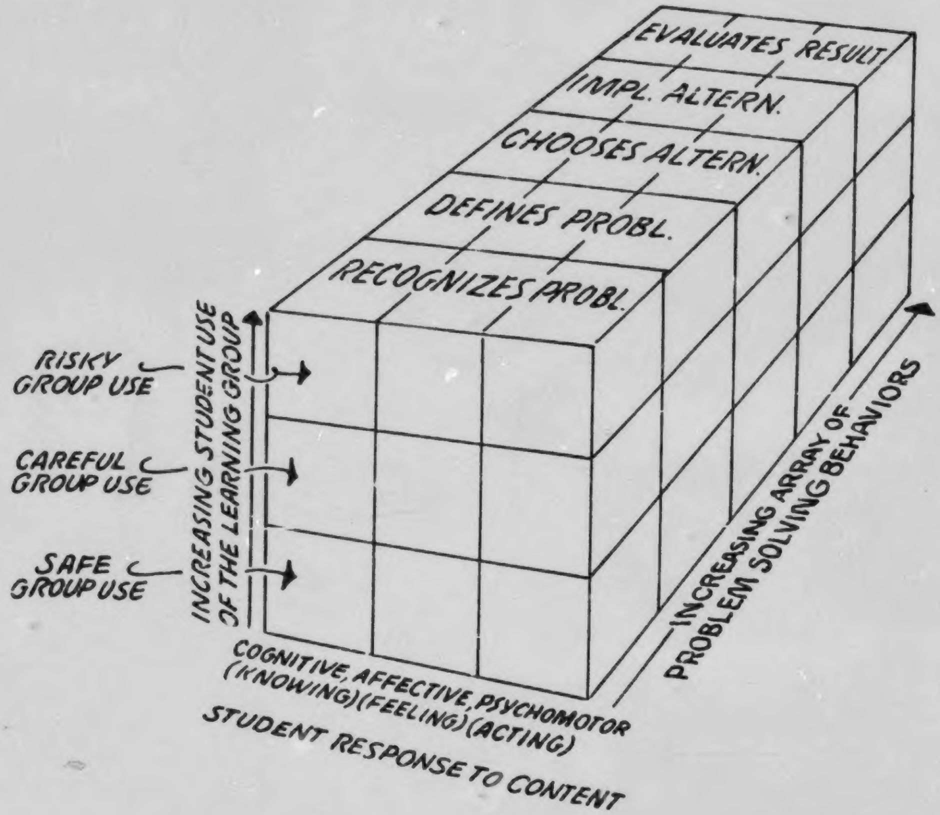
EVALUATES RESULT
IMPL. ALTERN.
CHOOSES ALTERN.
DEFINES PROBL.
RECOGNIZES PROBL.
RISKY GROUP USE
CAREFUL GROUP USE
SAFE GROUP USE
INCREASING STUDENT USE OF THE LEARNING GROUP
INCREASING ARRAY OF PROBLEM SOLVING BEHAVIORS
COGNITIVE, AFFECTIVE, PSYCHOMOTOR
(KNOWING)(FEELING)(ACTING)
STUDENT RESPONSE TO CONTENT

Fig. 3 The Life Skills Process Model

In summary, as the student uses the first dimension of the Life Skill process to manipulate course content, he comes to know it in the cognitive domain; he reacts to it emotionally in the affective domain, and the student reacts behaviorally in the psychomotor domain by doing something about it. Finally, the student applies problem solving skills to the lesson content, using an increasing array of skills to do so. The ideal student responds to the course content knowingly, feelingly, and by action; he uses the group to refine his response to the content; he applies a complete range of problem solving skills to the situations in the content. The arrows in Figure 4 show how a Life Skills student handles the content of the Life Skills Course.

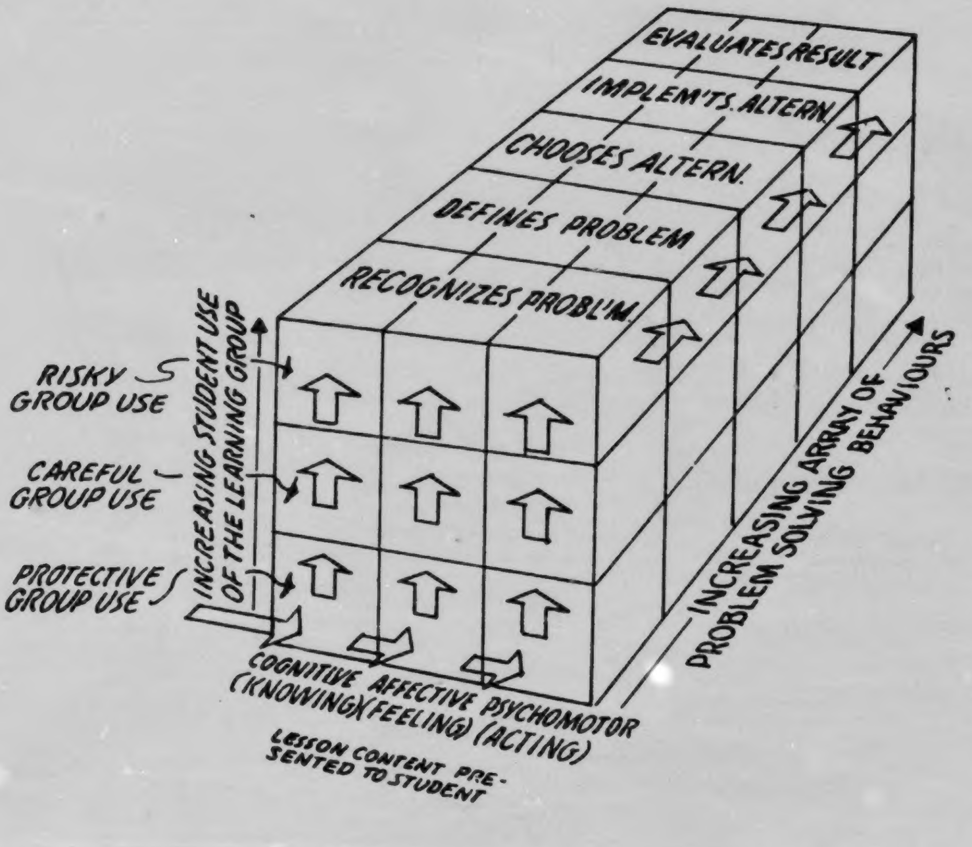
EVALUATES RESULT
IMPLEM'TS. ALTERN.
CHOOSES ALTERN.
DEFINES PROBLEM
RECOGNIZES PROBL'M.
INCREASING STUDENT USE OF THE LEARNING GROUP
RISKY GROUP USE
CAREFUL GROUP USE
PROTECTIVE GROUP USE
INCREASING ARRAY OF PROBLEM SOLVING BEHAVIOURS
COGNITIVE (KNOWING)
AFFECTIVE (FEELING)
PSYCHOMOTOR (ACTING)
LESSON CONTENT PRESENTED TO STUDENT

Fig. 4 The Life Skills Process/Content Model

The Use of Process in the Life Skills Course.

Unlike many "education" programs which assume transfer, or leave it to the student, and more like many training programs, success of the Life Skills Course requires that students make effective transfer of their problem solving skills. The persons using the Life Skills course must concern themselves with the process which subsumes all others in the Life Skills course; that of transfer of skills from the training centre to everyday life.

Doubtless, the process of transfer of training subsumes many subtle integrations of new knowledge, judgments by the person making the transfer as to the consequences of changing his behavior in different settings, reconciliations of uncertainties, and many others, actions unobservable, and infinite in variety. The Life Skills Course provides each student with an opportunity to participate in all of the following processes, each one subsumed by the succeeding one, and all subsumed by the transfer process: accepting training; committing oneself to the group and its activities; observing the demonstration of a new skill; practicing a new skill in the group; discussing the practice of the new skill; practicing the new skill outside the group; practicing the new skill after the completion of the course; incorporation of the new skill into one's behavior pattern; teaching the new skill to another person.

Indeed, the teaching skill, the teaching of a new skill to another person, represents the final expectation that the Life Skills Course holds for its students. In the cognitive, or knowing domain, he must have enough knowledge to present the skill accurately to another person; he must have analyzed its components and recreated his own synthesis in order to demonstrate it to others. In the affective or feeling domain, he must have developed a loyalty to the value of the skill that reflects a conviction which motivates him to demonstrate it. Often too, he must actively model the new skill and so act in the teaching process. In order to promote skill transfer, the course design encourages the students to teach the skills they have learned to others, and the act of teaching the skill represents a criterion point for the evaluation of skill acquisition.

Figure 5 summarizes these processes and includes certain speculations about processes in the cognitive and affective domains. Figure 5 implies that movement down the page, and across the page from left to right, increases the commitment to adoption. As a corollary to this statement, the more the behaviors appear in the psychomotor domain, as shown in Figure 5, the greater the conviction the coach has that the students can make effective transfer. It necessarily follows then, that the students must manifest a disposition to change by practicing the new behaviors. Talking

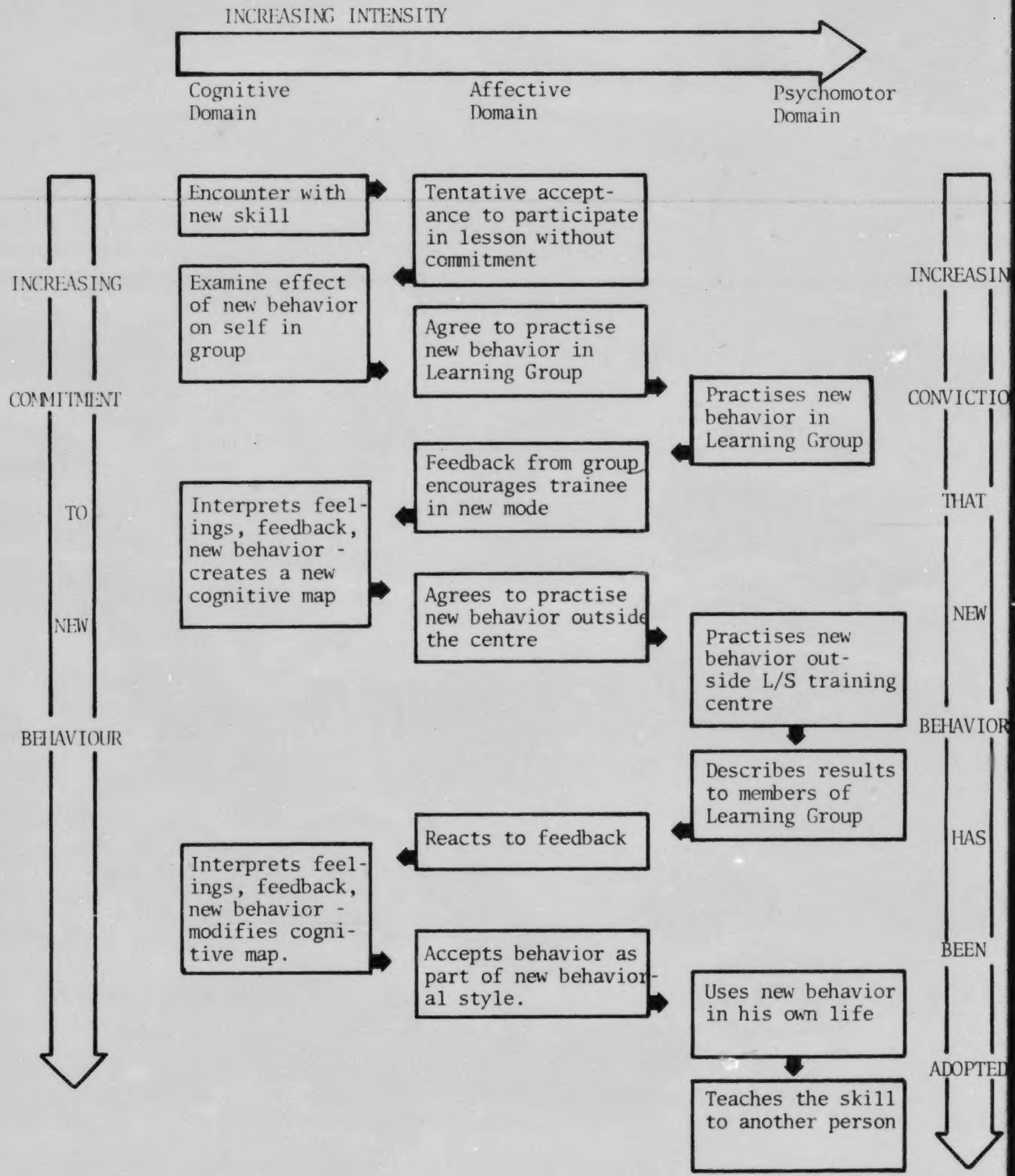
INCREASING INTENSITY
Cognitive Domain
Affective Domain
Psychomotor Domain
INCREASING COMMITMENT TO NEW BEHAVIOUR
Encounter with new skill
Tentative acceptance to participate in lesson without commitment
Examine effect of new behavior on self in group
Agree to practise new behavior in Learning Group
Practises new behavior in Learning Group
Feedback from group encourages trainee in new mode
Interprets feelings, feedback, new behavior - creates a new cognitive map
Agrees to practise new behavior outside the centre
Practises new behavior outside L/S training centre
Describes results to members of Learning Group
Reacts to feedback
Interprets feelings, feedback, new behavior - modifies cognitive map.
Accepts behavior as part of new behavioral style.
Uses new behavior in his own life
Teaches the skill to another person
INCREASIN CONVICTIO THAT NEW BEHAVIOR HAS BEEN ADOPTED

Fig. 5. Diagrammatic representation of the development of the skill transfer process.

about or reacting to new ideas is not enough. All connected with the course implementation must ensure that all students receive encouragement to apply the new behaviors, and support in their performances when they do so.

Summary

Life Skills means problem solving behaviors used in the management of personal affairs. The fact of a course assumes that people can learn to use these behaviors effectively. As used in the Life Skills Course, the word learning means changed behavior, and the word skill describes the behavior. The content of the Life Skills Course comes from the aspects of personal affairs described by the words self, family, community, job and leisure.

The Life Skills Process model consists of three dimensions: a student response to content dimension, a student use of group dimension, and a problem solving dimension. This process model manipulates the content provided by the content sources: self, family, community, job and leisure.

All Life Skills training aims at promoting the transfer of skill training from the learning setting to an application in the life of the individual outside his training.

THE LIFE SKILLS LESSON

- Mary Jean Martin and R. Himsl

The Lesson Model. The Life Skills lesson model combines techniques of counselling, education and skill training. The approach which the lesson model describes permits the student to display his knowledge and concerns about a particular problem as his first response to it. Then he seeks information and practices skills which help him develop new approaches to its solution; he then applies these skills and knowledge to the problem as his first response to it. Then he seeks information and practices skills which help him develop new approaches to its solution; he then applies these skills and knowledge to the problem and finally evaluates the effect of his action. He carries out these activities with the help of a coach trained in group dynamics, human relations, and problem solving and with the support of a group of students participating in similar learning experiences.

The model requires the precise statement of skill objective which gives direction to the student activities in the lesson. The student works toward the achievement of the objective through the five phases of the lesson model[1]: the stimulus, the evocation, the objective enquiry/skill practice, the application and the evaluation phases.

Application of the Model. The coach always articulates the skill objective for the students, drawing their attention to its skill components so they know exactly what behaviors he wants them to manifest during the application phase of the lesson. Usually, the coach presents the objective during the stimulus phase of the lesson; however, some lessons gain from delaying its presentation. The lesson descriptions in the Coaching Manual give recommended procedures.

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[1] The model was adapted from a four-stage model developed by Adkins and Rosenberg. The evaluation phase, implied within each stage in the original model, has been added as a separate phase.

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In the stimulus, the first of the five phases in the model, the coach presents the problem: in one lesson he uses a film; in another, he presents a case study; in yet another, he presents a trust exercise. During the stimulus, the coach might provoke, inform or question; whatever his procedure, he aims to stimulate a reaction from the students.

In the second phase, the evocation, the coach encourages the students to express their opinions and feelings related to the stimulus. Using counselling techniques, he remains non-judgmental, assisting the students to verbalize their concerns, to express their knowledge and tell of their experiences. The coach permits, and may encourage the articulation of disagreements about the topic under consideration and uses these disagreements as a basis for the development of the investigation which takes place later in the lesson. He "dignifies" the knowledge which the students have gained from experience, by recording their expression of it on a flip chart. In the evocation phase, the coach helps the students classify their ideas and helps them frame fact-finding questions for investigation in the next phase of the lesson.

In the objective enquiry/skill practice phase the coach acts as a teacher or guide. He helps the students seek out and relate new knowledge to the problem they defined; he helps them search for answers to their questions and to practice new skills; they might study themselves on video, or use check lists to examine their behavior; they might study films, books, clippings from magazines; or they might seek information from resource persons in the community.

To facilitate the search for new data, the course provides reference materials assembled in multi-media kits. No text exists for a Life Skills course, but an abundance of material can be found on most topics. The kits include magazine and newspaper clippings, government and business publications and paper back books. They include pictures, films, film-strips, slides, cartoons and the names and addresses of local people who have indicated a willingness to act as resource persons. The coach encourages the students to compare articles and contrast conflicting ideas. He encourages them to search for information from a variety of sources, rather than to accept just any source. He encourages them to persist in the tracking down of information they want.

In the objective enquiry/skill practice phase, the coach arranges situations in which the students practice the skills specified in the objective of the lesson. Often, the students do this practice in a role play situation designed to resemble the circumstances in which they use the skill in the application phase. In some lessons, for example, the lesson objective requires students to conduct on-the-street interviews and to make telephone appointments; in such instances, the coach prepares the students for the use of the necessary skills by conduct of skill practice in role play situations. The students use videotape feedback to modify their performance, and so improve their skills.

In the application phase of the lesson, the coach helps the student apply knowledge and skills to the solution of a problem. Whenever possible, he applies his solution in the real life situation. The real life situation changes as the course develops: in the early part of the course, the student applies his skill in the here and now situation of the learning group; later he applies his skill with visitors, in the community, in the home, or in planned simulations of other real situations. The lesson, Identifying Strengths of the Family, suggests that some students could take the video equipment to film a family activity and bring the record back to the group for study. In the lesson, Getting Out of a Money Trap, a student presents his case to a financial institution asking for help. In the application phase of the lesson, Exploring Expectations of Employers, the students conduct on-the-spot interviews with employers about what they expect of employees. In this application the students use interview skills which they practiced in the objective enquiry/skill practice phase of the lesson.

In the evaluation phase, the last of the five phases in the model, the students and coach assess student progress toward achievement of the skills specified in the lesson objective. In some lessons, the students assess their development by means of discussion, analysis of videotape, providing feedback based on check lists, and by direct interview with other students. In other lessons, the coach provides the students with direct feedback on his skill achievement. In the Life Skills evaluation model, however, assessment of skill achievement accomplishes only part of the evaluation; to complete the evaluation, coach and students must plan for further skill development. Often the coach does this by encouraging the students to teach the skill to other persons; sometimes he provides for additional skill practice following the feedback; sometimes he provides a one-to-one instructional situation in which another student, skilled in the use of the particular behavior models and instructs the less skilled person. The Life Skills lessons suggest different ways of achieving this two-step evaluation as the last activity in a particular lesson.

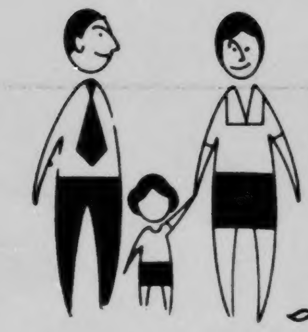
The Life Skills Lesson Plan. Each life skills lesson plan gives specific directions for carrying out the activities of each phase of the lesson. The prescriptive style provides the coach with details to clarify the intent; it describes one way of reaching the lesson objectives given the particular training population and the trained coach. The lessons contain tactical alternatives for the coach to consider in his instructional efforts. These tactical alternatives maintain the same instructional atmosphere, but give the coach an added resource. For example, it happens sometimes that a coach cannot borrow a certain recommended film; the lesson plans specify other procedures to use in such an event. Sometimes lessons contain several suggestions, none of which seem practicable to the coach; however, the extended list of suggestions indicate to the coach the kind of activity which the lesson designer considers consistent with the purposes of the lesson.

Most lesson plans contain nine sections which describe the conduct of the lesson. The Overview to each lesson describes the lesson generally. Sometimes it contains cautions to the coach in the use of the lesson. Often it discusses the relative significance of the skills under study. Some overviews contain suggestions for modifications in coaching style. Each lesson plan contains a statement of Resources Required if the lesson requires any special resources. This section lists items such as videotapes, cassette recorders, certain book titles, projectuals, slide transparencies, multi-media kits, play money, art supplies, and the like. Preparation of the lesson requires examination of this list and the making of necessary arrangements to have them on hand when instruction starts.

Each lesson next specifies an objective specifying one or more skills for achievement by the students.

Some lessons have some rather complex features about them and need rather extended advance preparations. In such lessons, an added section, Advance Preparation specifies just those requirements. As an illustration of such advance preparation, the lesson Writing Tests identifies the need to contact resource people, suggests where to make likely contacts, and gives guidance on how to approach them. The other sections which form the essence of the five stage model, stimulus, evocation, objective enquiry/skill practice, application and evaluation have already been described.

The lesson which follows, Managing Money, from the Life Skills Coaching Manual, illustrates the manner in which the actual lessons follow these design specifications.



Lesson: Managing Money

Time: 6 hours

FAMILY

Overview

This lesson emphasizes behavior change rather than written budget plans. Students analyse their spending behaviors, set a financial goal and practise ways to control spending.

Students may resist sharing details of their spending practices. You can model "risky" behavior by exposing your spending habits. Because the different amounts of money coming into different homes may distract from the central issue of spending habits, the group could use percentages in all discussions; you and students use the actual figures in calculations for personal use.

Resources Required

Slides: Andy Capp: Home Hazard

Slide Projector

A copy of Force Field Analysis of My Spending Habits for each student

A copy of the form, My Financial Plan, for each student

Multi-media kit

Objective

Each student uses the problem solving skills of brainstorming, applying criteria, force field analysis, predicting consequences, and comparison of results with predictions to implement a plan to practise effective money management skills.

Advance Preparation

Prepare a description of your own spending habits over the preceding month. Use the 5W-H system in preparing and presenting your description. Include general classifications in which you spend money and the percentage of your income you spend on each.

If any of your students have only recently come to your group and have never used brainstorming, prepare one of your more experienced students to teach the skill to the newer students. Have the student review the technique with you and coach him in the presentation. Supply him with confetti if he wants to use it in his demonstration. Remind him to use the skills of other people in the group in creating his demonstration.

Stimulus

Presentation of Objective. Write the objective on the flip chart. Say, "In this lesson you use many of the problem solving skills, as indicated in the objective, to look at your spending behaviors, to set a financial goal and practise ways to control spending. The lesson emphasizes behavior change rather than written budget plans." Explain the relationship between this lesson and Getting Out of a Money Trap. Say, "We dealt with money traps and used help to get out of financial difficulty. This lesson deals with staying out of financial trouble, making ends meet or saving towards a goal."

Present the slides, Andy Capp: Home Hazard. Some students may not know Andy Capp; if so, give some background. Tell the students, "Smythe, an English cartoonist, makes fun of Andy Capp's home life by illustrating some domestic problems. Andy Capp likes pigeons, soccer, and the pub; he never works and he expects his wife to provide the income for their daily living as well as the support for his three interests. Because Andy exaggerates all his behaviors, he enables everyone to see them more clearly; he helps us see some of ourselves in him."

Evocation

Do not spend a lot of time developing the reaction to the slide presentation and move quickly to the directions described in the last paragraph of the evocation if the students appear ready; otherwise, develop the discussion more slowly as described below. Ask the students to describe Andy's behaviors, "Why do we find Andy interesting? What does he do to make his wife Flo angry?"

Invite the students to take a flight of fancy to imagine what would happen if Andy and Flo won a sweepstake paying a monthly allowance of £300 ($750). Ask, "What might they do with the money? In what ways does this differ from what they do now? How would winning the money affect their spending habits?"

"Suppose Andy and Flo plan separate budgets: What items would Andy include? What items would Flo include?" Show the slides again or distribute Andy Capp comics for the students to study. Andy's interests might lead to items such as drinking, billiards, pigeons, the horse races. Flo's budget might include the electric (as she calls it), the rentman (as she calls it), the grocer, butcher, milk, coal, gas, bowling and bingo.

"Suppose Andy and Flo tried to develop one budget: in what ways might they plan to spend their money?" Encourage the students to brainstorm. This might yield ideas like this: each take half, pay essentials first, an allowance to each, invest it, take it all and bet on the races, take it all to play bingo, buy a pub. You might suggest two smaller groups for the brainstorm session and pool the ideas afterward.

After the students fancy what Andy and Flo might do, say: "What do we see of ourselves in Mr. Capp? Suppose luck gave us a higher income, would that end our money problems? Would our behaviors change?" After students consider these questions you add, "What spending behaviors do we have now? Let's find out."

Objective Enquiry/Skill Practise

Say to the students, "We have just looked at this rather funny approach to life shown by Andy Capp to get us thinking about our own spending habits. Shortly, I want you to help each other examine your own spending behaviors. In order to get ready to do this, we can do a simple trust exercise. I want to have us practise the skill of trusting. When each of you has his partner, I will demonstrate a trusting behavior similar to one we practised in the lesson, Expressing Trust in The Group. In this exercise, I want you to fall back into the arms of of your partner. Hold yourself stiff, and allow yourself to fall back; your partner will catch you under the arms as you fall." Choose a partner yourself and demonstrate. Then ask the students to repeat the exercise with their partner. If a large person pairs up with a smaller person, assist the smaller person by standing right behind him to help him catch the heavier person as he falls toward him.

When everyone has tried the trust exercise, take a few moments to explore its meaning. Ask the group to sit in a circle and say, "Tell how this trust exercise has helped you work with your partner. Describe your feelings as you fell back towards him." Encourage everyone in the group to speak, but do not allow the conversation to carry on for long.

When all students have spoken, tell the pairs to go to different parts of the room and set them this task: help your partner describe the ways he spent money since last pay day. Remind the students that in describing the problem situation, they use the 5W-H system, that is: who, when, what, where, why and how. Model this analysis by telling the ways you spent money since the last pay day. Invite students to share their stories with the group.

Lead the discussion to a consideration of goals and values: "What financial goals can you set for yourself with the money you now get? I can think of things like making ends meet, saving for a short trip or a new car, paying one bill, getting out of debt, or just staying out of debt. Make a list of five goals and put them in rank order. You do not need to set enormous goals; if useful, set simple ones like, "Limiting the amount of money I spend on smokes to 3/4 of what I now spend." When the students have set five possible goals, tell them to rank order them and choose the one they would most like to achieve.

Skill Practise. When each student has chosen a goal, tell them to do a force field analysis of spending habits to help make a plan. Distribute copies of the form, "Force Field Analysis of My Spending Habits" and tell students to work in pairs to complete the form. To help the students complete page 2 of the form, display materials from the multi-media kits as a source of ideas. Tell the students to record useful ideas and the sources so they can find the reference again. If the search of the materials in the multi-media kit fails to provide ideas that students feel would change spending habits and meet the other criteria, help the group look at the problem. Say, "Now what do we do? Can we combine ideas we found? Which ideas might we build on? Which ones suggest other ideas? Where else might we gain ideas?"

Skill Application

Reassemble the group and ask for reports from each pair. List the main ideas on the flip chart. Ask students to brainstorm criteria for judging the ideas: effectiveness in changing their buying habits; acceptability to their marriage partner; provision for change in the plan. Planning for review entails looking at the budget after a week-end and assessing the success of the plan. The budgets may require an adjustment after a week-end due to over-spending or some spending not accounted for in the original budget plan. You may have to adjust the plan by looking at a small item such as cigarettes or tobacco. Maybe it will require adjusting the cigarette or tobacco spending behaviors by buying them at a certain time of the day or week and planning to make do till such time. Help students judge the merit of their ideas by applying the criteria and predicting consequences of the implementation of the ideas.

Sometimes students have trouble keeping to plan covering all aspects of their spending; if your students find this difficult, encourage them to plan their spending on a smaller aspect of their spending such as planning their spending on food, or tobacco, transportation, or entertainment.

When the students find ideas meeting the criteria, help them plan how to implement the ideas: use of pertinent references; getting help from the group; getting additional information from community resources. Have them complete the form My Financial Plan. Ask them to predict the results of their plan. Say, "What difficulties do you foresee in meeting your goal? Can you control your impulses to buy? What if you lose your coat or some other important possession? If you stick to your plan, how do you think you'll feel? How will your feel if you don't. How will other members of your family react? If you start to slip, will you go back to the plan? How will you do it?" Tell them to discuss it with their spouse, modifying it if necessary.

You say that you feel most people could use the help of another person to stick to a plan. Ask each student to get the help of another student in managing his financial affairs for a two week period, beginning with the next pay day. Explain, "By 'manage', I mean that each student has his own money, but for the sake of testing the idea, each agrees to give a daily accounting of his spending to his partner." Say, "We can make the reporting easier. We can prepare some categories to describe our spending: food, rent, transportation, medicine, entertainment, and so on. You can name more categories like that, and then use them to describe your spending behaviors to your partner." Ask the students to agree to tell their partner of any changes made in their plan, and to discuss any changes they think they need to make.

Evaluation

Each day during the two-week period, you allow 5 minutes for the partners to go over their accounts. Each student fills out his daily section of the form, My Financial Plan. Encourage the students to ask the group for help.

If the students object to the above plan, ask for an alternative. Help them with the plan, providing time as needed. Insist that everyone tries some form of this activity.

Recognize the need for continued affective support during this project: you emphasize; you chaff; you say, "I know it's tough, but we need to help each other! If we want to reach our goal, it's easier when we all float in the same boat."

At the end of the two week period, ask students to describe their present spending behaviors and to compare the description to the one made earlier in the lesson. Ask them to rate themselves on a scale like this:

My Spending Habits

I prepared an unrealistic plan	1	2	3	4	5	I prepared a practical plan
I did not follow my plan	1	2	3	4	5	I followed my plan
My spending habits did not improve	1	2	3	4	5	My spending habits improved

Ask students to tell what parts of their plan helped them and to specify improvements in the plan. Ask them to compare the results of the experiment with their predictions.

As a final activity, ask students to plan ways to continue practising effective behaviors. Suggest they devise a system for the next month to help them. Propose the use of a typical budget form as the alternative. Allow time for work on this problem and request a report once each week at an agreed upon time. At the end of one month, you and the group evaluate their progress and offer suggestions to any one having difficulty in this exercise.

Lesson: Managing Money

Force Field Analysis of My Spending Habits - page 1

My Financial Goal: ____________________

____

Problem: In what ways might I change my spending habits so I can achieve my goal?

Spending Habits That Help Me	Spending Habits That Hinder Me
____________ →	← ____________
____________ →	← ____________
____________ →	← ____________
____________ →	← ____________
____________ →	← ____________

Habits I Can Change to Help Me Reach My Goal

____

____

____

____

____

____

Lesson: Managing Money

Force Field Analysis of My Spending Habits - page 2

Ways I Might Change My Spending Habits

Ideas from Brainstorming

Ideas from Multi-media Kit

Suggestions from Friends

Lesson: Managing Money

My Financial Plan

Name ______________________

Date ______________________

My Financial Goal: ____

____

____

To achieve my financial goal I plan to change my spending habits by:

1. ____

2. ____

3. ____

4. ____

5. ____

6. ____

7. ____

8. ____

Achievement of my financial goal:

WEEK 1	YES	NO	REASONS WHY
Day 1 -			
Day 2 -			
Day 3 -			
Day 4 -			
Day 5 -			

WEEK 2	YES	NO	REASONS WHY
Day 1 -			
Day 2 -			
Day 3 -			
Day 4 -			
Day 5 -			

CREATING A LIFE SKILLS LESSON

- Ralph Himsl

Introduction

The Life Skills Coaching Manual contains sixty-one lesson plans which describe ways a coach can help his students learn the skills specified in the skill objective. Of course, these sixty-one lessons do not cover all the topics which might interest a group of Life Skills students, nor do they address the skill needs of all students. These limitations suggest opportunity and the need for added development of the Life Skills course by the coach. A coach can develop the course to suit the needs in a number of different ways: he may choose not to present certain lessons to his students; he may modify individual lessons; or he may change the sequence of lessons; or at his most creative, he may invent new lessons. This article deals with the method of adapting lessons to particular student needs.

Anyone creating lessons has a wide choice of elements for a new Life Skills lesson; knowledge of the assumptions which inform the Life Skills Lessons described in the Life Skills Coaching Manual enable him to construct new lessons consistent with the aims of Life Skills training.

Experience has shown the value of writing the lesson plan rather then just thinking it through generally in the mind's eye. Certainly, the experienced or skilled coach can conduct a satisfying, and possibly productive lesson without making any record of it; however, the discipline of writing the lesson benefits a successful invention. Writing disciplines the coach to record his skill objectives in precise behavioral terms; it helps him identify his procedures and materials requirements, and it enables him to test his lesson concept in action. This essay suggests procedures for producing a written lesson outline.

A final general observation: the lessons as set out in the Life Skills Coaching Manual contain detailed descriptions of procedures a coach could follow in implementing a lesson. The authors have included detail because of the need to convey, as accurately as possible, their intent. Probably, a person creating a lesson for his own purposes would not require such detail; in a way then, the lesson plans in the coaching manual have a higher degree of development than a coach requires in making his own lesson. The example in this essay uses a simpler model, but complete in all respects.

Identification of the Need of a New Lesson

Any one or all of four sources may generate the need for new life skills lessons: a group of students may have special training needs because of characteristics peculiar to that group; something may develop within the group which interferes with the development of the individuals in it; individuals in the group may persistently fail to adapt to the progressive skill development which the course provides; and finally, as a fourth general source, the entire group of students may fail to achieve the skill objective for a particular lesson.

In considering the first of these sources, the coach realizes that the course as written meets the needs of a composite Life Skills group. The course designers based their choice of lesson topics on two sources, a study of related literature and a study of the needs of the students who took life skills training during the early developmental stages of the course. Life Skills groups which have distinctive characteristics may require different lessons. A coach working with a group of young adult males would study that group carefully for special training needs. Similarly, a Life Skills coach working in a post-release setting with people who have received treatment for mental illness might find that these Life Skills students identify special training needs. A coach who works with a Life Skills group with any distinctive characteristics would expect to meet special training needs.

As another, second source, a coach will find that training needs spring from within the group itself. Sometimes a group of students develops in such a way as to require lessons of special design by the coach; this happens even when the students as a group do not reveal any distinctive characteristics. The patterns of interactions among members in the group may develop a fixed quality after the first few lessons, with certain people dominating most of the conversation, others always providing a tension release, and others remaining quiet, justifying their presence by saying, "I learn a lot just by listening". A coach can detect such patterning by close observation of the group: he can study videotapes, prepare sociograms, assemble interaction tallies, or observe the interactions of the students directly in response to the self-directed question, "What's going on here?" He uses this as a signal to himself to withdraw and observe the actions under way.

Observation of the behavior of individual students may assist in the identification of a training need. Persistent use of any behavior by a student often signals a special training need since the definition for learning as used in Life Skills requires changed behavior, and implies the ability to change behavior. If a student can not adopt a new behavior in spite of frequent opportunity to do so, the coach must examine the possibility that the skill practice called for in the lesson objective lies outside the "ability periphery" of the student. The lesson may require him to speak to a group of students, but the student still has trouble looking at a stranger when he speaks to him in face-to-face conversation; such a situation requires special instructional provisions.

A coach has a fourth means of identifying the need for new lessons. If a large number of students do not respond to the skill objective, the coach must examine the meaning of that lack of response. The Opportunity Response Scale describes the lowest level of response as "Response under constraint". If his students do not respond to the skill objective at that level, the coach must examine the skill objective for the demands it places on the students; in other words, does it lie within their ability periphery? He must examine the lesson topic for its relevance to student needs as perceived by them. The result of such an examination indicates the need for the type of course modification, and the need for the creation of a new lesson.

Skills, not Attitudes

In considering the need for additional lessons, the coach can ease his task of providing the necessary training by thinking quite precisely about skills, as distinct from attitudes and motives. This does not admonish the coach to choose between teaching for development of skills instead of attitudes and motives but it does suggest a way around the complications of teaching for development of attitudes and motives. Some people distinguish between skills and attitudes unwillingly, or prefer to think that skills do not develop without attitudes, or alternatively, attitudes do not develop without skills. Most everyone can name an attitude easily enough: sullen, warm, stubborn, co-operative, demanding, apologetic. A little added thinking soon discovers the related behaviors; in fact, most everyone accepts that the description of an attitude requires naming behaviors. With this widely held opinion for support, the coach can think of determining the direction of his training by precise behavioral descriptions of the objectives, without resolving the relationship between attitudes and behaviors.

Suppose a coach observes that the members of his group "lack an enquiring attitude", and he says, "I want to have them develop an enquiring attitude." In order to accomplish his goal, he must now describe what he means by an enquiring attitude by naming those behaviors which reveal that attitude. He finds that people show what he means by an enquiring attitude when they, "Ask lots of questions; let others complete what they have to say; participate in new experiences; defer judgement." He examines his list and decides which of these marks of an enquiring attitude his students lack, and he plans his work to provide training in the missing skill.

The coach can examine the relationship from another point of view which may help: he can observe the behavior and infer the attitude. For example, a coach might observe that a member of his group interrupted five other people in a period of 15 minutes; he has observed a behavior. He says to himself, "That student has an impatient attitude." He has inferred the attitude. Notice the solid nature of the behavioral evidence; its interpretation as an attitude lacks the same certainty and requires further corroboration. Suppose though, that the coach has observed and inferred accurately; in other words, the student had interrupted 5 times and admitted to impatience under questioning by the coach. If the coach chooses to use his instructional procedure to achieve an attitude change he might aim "to develop a patient attitude in the student". If however, he chooses to base his instructional procedure on the need to achieve behavioral change, he might aim to train his student to "stop cutting other people off when they speak". The latter objective serves as a more effective guide to instructional planning than does the former.

This discussion hardly resolves the question about the relative importance of attitudes and skills; it does suggest though, that a coach can create a perfectly sound objective for a Life Skills lesson without coming to any categorical position on which comes first, attitude change or behavior change.

Designing the Life Skills Lesson

The problem solving process lends itself well to the development of a new Life Skills lesson. The lesson development example in this essay follows the problem solving steps set out in Table 1, A Summary of a Problem Solving Process. The reader may wish to refer to the process summary below as the discussion develops.

1. Goal 1	Describe the problem situation Write a brief description in which you answer the questions, who? what? when? where? why? how?
2. Goal 2	Define the problem First: Collect more facts. Ask more questions about your description. Ask as many questions as you can, but do not ask questions beginning with why, could, or might. Second: Ask questions beginning, "In what ways might .....?"

		Third: Test each "In what ways might ....." question as your definition of the problem.
3.	Goal 3	Choose a solution First: Brainstorm solutions. Second: Brainstorm criteria. Third: Choose a solution. Fourth: Predict results.
4.	Goal 4	Apply a solution First: Plan how to carry out the solution. Second: Carry out the plan.
5.	Goal 5	Evaluate the results Compare the results of the action with what you predicted for the results.

Table 1 A Summary of a Problem Solving Process

Step 1: Description of the Need for the New Lessons

In describing the need for new lessons, the coach creates the overview to his lesson. A person creating a lesson could use the 5W-H problem solving skills from the course with good effect. A description of the training need in terms generated by the answers to the questions identified by 5W-H helps the trainer check his identification of the training need. Consider the training situation identified by the second of the preceding examples in which the Life Skills group had developed a predictable response to new situations.

The following examples illustrate the use of the 5W-H system to describe the training problem.

Who?

I want to create a Life Skills lesson for my group of twelve students who have adopted a fixed pattern of group behavior.

What pattern of behavior do they show?

> I find that Emma Jane Frazer usually makes one of the first two or three remarks and the other students seldom disagree with her, although they do build on her ideas. Lloyd Jones does not speak to the group very often, but he often whispers comments to his close companion, John Anderson. Denise and Helen sometimes comment on Emma Jane's ideas, and go along with them, but they always sit with their big handbags on their laps and look like they want to leave. And everyone always sits in exactly the same place in the room - even I do.
>
> When did this patterning take place?
>
> I noticed it only today when I discussed student progress with my supervisor; but when I think of it, I realize the students have acted this way for the last ten days - in fact, ever since a couple of students had a clash which we smoothed over but might not have resolved.
>
> Where does the patterned behavior occur?
>
> It's occurrence in the group troubles me; I observe it mostly when the whole group works together, although I also see that students always select the same partners for work in smaller groups.
>
> Why does this patterning occur?
>
> I guess the students find it comfortable; that also suggests to me that they have stopped learning in this respect at least.
>
> How does the patterning or structuring of behavior in the group affect the development of the students?
>
> I think that they do not express their ideas and feelings; the fixed form of action restricts the learning, since people do not experiment with new behaviors.

Step 2: State the Lesson Objective

The lesson objective results from a clear definition of the problem. The definition of a problem often requires the gathering of more facts. Although the earlier description contains much detail already, a few questions yield more useful facts. A continuation of the example illustrates the process.

> By asking about the quality of the interactions in the group, the coach realized that the students praised the "good relations" which they had. He found that this meant they almost never disagreed with each other. The smoothing over of their earlier difficulty supports this view. Study of some videotapes revealed the use of behaviors which enabled the group to avoid any sort of conflict.

Use of the "In what ways might ....." question produces a number of possible definitions to the coach's problem, e.g.:

> In what ways might a coach help students recognize that they have fallen into harmful behaviors in the group?
>
> In what ways might students develop more searching attitudes in the group?
>
> In what ways might each student change one behavior to change patterns in the group?

A number of tentative definitions of the problem help, since examination of each one exposes different assumptions and assures the coach that he has produced a satisfactory statement. Use of the question why on each tentative definition subjects it to a sharp test.

> Test of the first tentative definition with "why" reveals two shortcomings: Why teach the students? The word teach sets the action on the coach and not on the student - a misplacement. And why should "student ... recognize that they have .....?" The students need to recognize, but recognition alone would not change the functioning of the group.
>
> Test of the second tentative definition exposes a weakness in the words "searching attitudes". Neither students nor coach could explain the meaning of that phrase.
>
> A search of the third tentative definition with the question why, leads to the question, "Why should the students (to) learn to act more flexibly .....?" Our answer shows that their rather fixed behaviors caused this problem in the first place and the definition seems adequate enough; however, examination from the point of view of precision shows that the words "act more flexibly" lack precise enough meaning to guide a coach in the creation of new instructional materials.
>
> The final tentative definition looks more promising: why "each student"? Because the Life Skills coach has a primary concern for each student. Why "one behavior"? Because it makes a realizable goal, and the interaction of a single changed behavior on the part of each person in the group would likely accomplish a major alteration in patterns in the group.

An examination of the selection process reveals that the developer has used the problem solving skills of applying selection criteria to the alternative definitions; he has tested them for adequacy. In choosing his definition the coach has used the following criteria, listed in the same order as the application.

> Does the objective name a student behavior? The first objective identified the coach behavior of teaching. Does the objective name an observable behavior? The first tentative definition called for the ill-defined student behavior of recognition. Does the definition meet the criterion of face validity? The requirement of the first tentative objective for recognition of harmful behaviors assumes that with recognition of the need, the students will know action to take to correct the condition, and will take it; it does not look strong enough.
>
> The second tentative definition fails to meet the criterion of meaning a student behavior. It names a student attitude, a "searching" attitude; this the coach can infer, but not observe directly. Similarly, the third tentative objective does not describe an observable behavior.
>
> Examination of the fourth tentative definition of a training behavior permits the specification of six essential criteria: it specifies the Agent, in this illustration, each student; it requires a Behavior, although it does not name any particular one. It names a Context, telling where the coach wants to see the skill appear; he wants it in the group. It specifies a Degree of accomplishment; each student will change one behavior. Finally, it specifies an Effective time; in this objective, a period of two weeks. The definition seems to meet in sum, the earlier mentioned criterion of Face validity, since it seems to relate to the problems as described. A simple memory aid keeps these criteria of adequacy at the ready:
>
> Agent
>
> Behavior
>
> Context
>
> Degree
>
> Effective time
>
> Face validity
>
> A definition of a training problem, and the resultant skill objective ought to meet these six criteria.

So the choice of definitions settles on the last statement as an adequate definition of the problem, and it now becomes possible to state a skill objective based on that definition: each student names a new behavior he will use in the group; he predicts how it will contribute to changing the group, and he uses the new behavior in a group activity over a two week period.

Step 3: Choose an Application for the Lesson

In general problem solving terms, this step reads, "Choose a solution". The coach ought now to consider different possibilities in a rather free-running situation. At this point, the coach could use help from someone else, even one who knows little about his work, because such a person would not pay much attention to the restrictions, real and fancied, which tend to limit the coach's thinking. To use this method, the coach sketches his problem in bare outline: "My group of students has developed some fixed patterns of responding to a situation; a couple of people do most of the leading; a few others give approving remarks; they usually sit in the same places in the room; even when they work in small groups, they do not always remember that changing their behavior actually requires them to practise changing."

In order to demonstrate the effect of this procedure, the author actually presented the preceding description of the problem to other people not directly concerned with the problem, but willing to contribute ideas. Note the freedom in the ideas, the disregard of limitations, and the richness of the suggestions.

> "You could pair them in dyads, or whatever you call them. Give each pair a task and force them to do it with 2 or 3 other people they did not usually work with; ask them to maintain this new relationship over a fixed period of time. When you pair them, you could give them a task which they would do in the group, and another task which they would take them outside the group. Have them give a combined report to the group. Then you could have them describe their feelings about working with different people and having their old relationships changed."
>
> "You could do something to the group like moving them to another place or room. You have VTR's of the group; ask your students to study these for any fixed patterns that develop. Have the group describe the problem. The guy who talks all the time needs to see his behavior. You could toss the problem to the students as one they need to solve."
>
> "I suggest you put the student in, do you call them twosomes(?) - with persons working with different people. Tell them about the need to change. You should involve them in the agenda; I think you should evaluate them on how they felt. Have each person name his current behavior and describe his role, and then he could identify the help he needs to change. I'll bet you could use

> some of your earlier lessons now and the students would gain new things from them. You could try them in a simple game which would change their relationships and not have much stress to it."
>
> "You could have the students role play each other in the group: each student selects one other student to imitate and then give this new group a task and they take someone else's part during the completion of the task."
>
> "You could ask each student to describe his behavior as he now sees it, then tell how he wants to change it in the group, and then demonstrate this new behavior with the help of other students if necessary. Each student would do this part as a private assignment, but the coach would play the recording of all the students to the entire group."

A coach need not limit his search for ideas to the one procedure of speaking to other interested people, he might also read the literature relating to his topic, or explore whatever source appears likely. A coach might do well to create his own "data bank" of ideas. A set of 3" x 5" cards, each with a single idea, identified with a heading and arranged alphabetically in a file would provide a quick reference for ideas; as the ideas occur to him the coach jots them down and files them for immediate use and future reference.

If these ideas form a repertoire of possible solutions acceptable to the coach, he would then review his criteria of acceptability. Though these vary with the situation, a coach might want an application to meet these criteria: students would accept the solution; it will produce immediate effect; we can put it into action immediately; it provides for behavioral change; it gives the students feedback on their performance; it meets the requirements specified in the objective; it provides for followup.

On the basis of these criteria and the ideas suggested, the coach might construct this application: "The students make a VTR of their statement of choice of a new behavior to practise; they say how they think it will change the group, and store this statement for examination at the end of two weeks. The group devises a method to keep a daily record for two weeks of the use by each student of new behaviors and its effect on the group as it continues with its regular lessons. The students can use sociograms, tally sheets, VTR and check lists of behaviors made by students to record their actions. The plan must provide for daily feedback of the findings to the students.

Step 4: Develop the Lesson Plan

This step corresponds to the problem solving process of applying a solution. In this step, the coach specifies those activities he uses to implement the solution. The lesson model provided in the Life Skills course simplifies this task since it provides a familiar structure on which to hang the details of the plan.

Because the coach uses the lesson primarily for his own purposes, the lesson plan needs fewer details than those contained in the plans in the Life Skills Coaching Manual. The following statement summarizes the elements of a plausible lesson plan; it includes working summaries of the sections already developed and the remaining elements required to complete a Life Skills lesson plan. During the preparation of a lesson plan, a coach might find a pack of 5" x 8" file cards useful. Each section of the lesson has a card on which the developer can record the appropriate ideas. The cards enable the developer to move readily across all sections of the lesson. Such a technique complements the development process which does not take place serially; instead, ideas appropriate to one section of a lesson often occur when the developer's attention directs his activities to quite another section. This realization means something too for the reader of the lesson plan which follows: although it appears in serial form, that form represents a convenience for the reader and does not reflect the order of development.

Overview

My group of Life Skills students have fallen into a pattern of responses and behaviors which they use whenever they work as a group. I think they do not realize that this has developed, and they do not realize that it limits their learning. I want to show them this pattern and have them develop ways of overcoming it.

Skill Objective

Each student:

1. Names a new behavior he will use in the group;
2. Predicts how it will contribute to changing the group;
3. Uses the new behavior in a group activity,

all over a period of two weeks.

Resources Required

Some videotaped sequences which show the repetition of the behaviors in individuals in the group; some tallies of interaction collected over a couple of days; some sociograms of actions in the group.

Video equipment.

Flip chart and felt marker.

Tally sheets and sociograms.

Advance Preparation

Two or three days before lesson, collect more supporting data in the form of videotaped sequences, sociograms and behavioral tallies.

Stimulus

Repeat the distance exercises. See the lesson, Relating to Others. Record the distances between students and save until the end of the lesson.

Show the VTR with spare comment. Say, "I want to show you some records of our work over the last few days." Invite student comment.

Show the sociograms of student position and interaction, explain the meaning. Get student comment.

Show the tallies of kind of behavior and frequency of activity on the part of students.

Have a helper videotape the reaction of the students as they receive the report.

Evocation

Ask the students for their reaction to the findings.

Why have I showed this?

What did you see?

What do you feel about it?

Have you noticed any of these things?

What do we as a group want to do about it?

Record student comment on a flip chart.

Objective Enquiry/Skill Practice

Ask a student to summarize.

Play a video tape record of the group as they receive the reports.

Ask them to define the problem as they see it. Record their remarks on the flip chart.

Ask students to propose a solution.

Say that the solution must meet criteria set out in the lesson objective; present the lesson objective.

I can use any solution which students propose which meets the objective, and may use my own ideas if necessary.

The students identify new behaviors needed by the group and record them on the flip chart.

The students help each other select the behaviors for practice and demonstrate them if necessary.

The students prepare a plan by which different students, working in rotation, observe the rest of the group in action, tally the activities, prepare sociograms, make video tape records, and provide the feedback to the group at the end of each session. The students prepare a timetable of assignments and draw up samples of any forms needed.

Application

Each student records on videotape a statement of the behavior he plans to use and predicts how it will change the group.

The group carry out the plan formed in the Objective Enquiry/Skill Practice according to the schedule of pupil assignment to the task.

Evaluation

The plan provides for a daily evaluation during the period of feedback.

At this time the students can examine the extent of their skill achievement and set new goals for further development.

Ask them to describe their feelings about their effort at behavioral change; ask them to tell about their feelings as they see their friends working in different ways.

Show the tapes made by the students in the application and ask them to comment on how well they achieved their skill; ask each person to describe how the group patterns have developed.

Tell the students, "We can measure the change as well." Remind them of the distance exercise done during the lesson stimulus. Repeat it. Compare the results.

Because of the nature of this lesson, the coach appears to have little need for the development of a multi-media kit; other lessons may require the extensive collection of reference materials. The coach can use the interests and abilities of the students to help in creating the necessary collection of resources.

Aids to Lesson Development

If the coach apprehends the training problem clearly and has all the methodologies and techniques at hand, his planning can go ahead in the manner just described; he draws on his store of techniques as his thinking clarifies the training need. Table 2, Matrix for Identification of Instructor's Methodology from Instructional Need relates some training objectives, typical of Life Skills lessons, to training tactics or techniques which could assist the coach in meeting these objectives. The list across the top of the table contains techniques which the coach uses to achieve his aims; the listing on the side of the table identifies some training needs a coach might identify as he works with his students. Occasionally, the same item occurs in both lists. A little reflection reveals the justification for this.

Identification of the training objective on the left-hand side of the table, and horizontal movement to the right in the body of the table, discovers techniques which a trainer could use to meet the objective, making appropriate adaptation to circumstances. Examination of the list of methodologies available to the coach reveals that coaches often combine more than one method.

A few examples will demonstrate the use of Table 2 as an aid. Suppose a coach discovers that several of his students find difficulty accepting help and he decides to create a lesson for them which emphasizes the skill of accepting help. A horizontal movement to the right on the chart finds these suggestions for coach methodologies: dyads, triads, working groups of 4 - 5, full group, half group, counselling, role play, human relations exercises, and contract,

SOME METHODOLOGIES AVAILABLE TO THE COACH		Dyad	Triad	Groups of 4 - 5	Full Group	Half Group	Group-On-Group	Resource People	Peer Rating	Student Teaching	Tours	Counselling	Debate	Panel Discussion
COACH IDENTIFIES STUDENT NEED TO:	Accept Help													
	Achieve													
	Defer Judgement													
	Describe Feelings													
	Evaluate													
	Follow													
	Gather Information													
	Get Students to Talk													
	Give Feedback													
	Give of Himself													
	Handle Feelings													
	Handle Stress													
	Identify Own Behaviors													
	Keep Records													
	Lead													
	Listen													
	Make Decisions													
	Offer Help													
	Oppose													
	Practise New Skill													
	Question													
	Recognize Needs of Others													
	Recognize Non-Verbal Cues													
	Risk													
	Seek Help													
	Set Goals													
	Support Others													
	Take Responsibility													
	Teach a Skill													
	Use Helpful Behaviors													
	Use Opportunity													
	Work in Here-and-Now													

Table 2 - Matrix For Identification of

Public Speaking	Interviews	Videotape	Role Play	Demonstration	Games	Tally	Check List	Sociogram	Simulation	Lecture	Confrontation	Human Relations Exercise	Reporting	Viewing Films	Audio-Tapes	Read	Fantasy	Case Study	Assignment of Project	Contract	Ask "What's Going on Here?"	Student Records	Lecture

Instructor's Methodology From Instructional Need among others. The coach can now use a procedure of forcing relationships between his objective and the training methodology to produce usable instructional procedures. A coach might use the full group to present the problem as he sees it; in terms of the Life Skills lesson structure, he would use the full group to present the stimulus. That means that he would return to the full group for at least part of the evaluation. The half group suggests ideas for the evocation part of the lesson: two groups working separately on their understanding of the problem presented in the stimulus could develop statements of their understanding for presentation to the other members of the group and for their reaction to it. The group could form smaller working groups of 4 students to seek information and propose possible solutions to the problem. They might practise the skills in triads and contract with each other in the triad to use the skills in the ordinary conduct of the Life Skills course; they might agree to demonstrate this new behavior to the whole group in the application. In the evaluation, they could return to their triads for feedback on their use of the skills, and then, in the large group again, they could examine their feelings on the whole exercise and discuss with the coach the extent to which they resolved the problem as he saw it.

The creator of a lesson or an instructional situation must recognize that his objective, and the skill objective which he sets for the student, may differ. He may say as in the foregoing example that he aims to train his students to accept help; but however adequate he may find such a statement for his purposes, he must express that aim in student behaviors which he seeks as a result of his instruction, such as: "Having received help in learning a new skill, the student says, 'That demonstration helped me. Thanks.'" Or to use another example, "The student accepts the help of other people in carrying out a plan by assigning each person a task and expressing his thanks to each one individually."

A coach may discover that his Life Skills students avoid stressful situations: they have a number of ways of getting out of difficult situations. They sometimes ignore them. If one student raises an objective to a certain course of action, the other students do not acknowledge it; they ignore him. Sometimes they use humor to escape from situations of stress, or they keep feedback at a superficial level, or provide only what they consider positive feedback. These behaviors prevent the group from entering an important area of investigation and development and this concerns the coach.

As before, the coach can find his training objective: to train students to handle stress on the vertical dimension of the chart, and move horizontally on the chart to the right, forcing relationships as he goes. Such possibilities as the following seem worth exploring: a coach could confront the whole group with its inability to handle stress by giving them evidence of it as he sees it, and then by providing the students with feedback on their acceptance of his confrontation. He might use group-on-group to present half the group with a stressful situation, while the other half observe how they receive it and provide them with feedback. He might use resource people to assist him in developing stress; a resource person might disagree with the group, say, on some issue, and the coach could videotape the action for replay at an appropriate point in the lesson. Or the coach might use resource people to participate in an elaboration of role play. Forcing of relationships among the elements of stress, resource people and role play produces this possibility: practise the student to prepare for an interview, possibly stressful, using role play, then send them to interview a resource person on his own ground where he would create some stress during the interview; the students could then examine their reactions to the situations on return to the training group, and plan for further training.

Step 5: Evaluate the Whole Lesson

After the coach has developed the lesson and used it with his group at all the lesson stages, including the daily evaluation stage during the period of student feedback, he should consider each one of the lesson stages separately and he should also think of the lesson as a whole. He might ask himself some questions: Was the problem clearly defined? Did the stimulus create interest in the problem? Was the solution reasonable? Was enough information collected? Did the students meet the objective? Did they learn the skills that were required? Was the problem solved? Did the lesson work in the classroom and was the application carried out satisfactorily? Was the lesson really necessary? Should it be used again? Did the experience of using the lesson indicate any needs for change?

With answers to these questions in his mind, if the problem still exists, the coach can make any necessary changes to the lesson and add it as a permanent part of his repertoire. If the lesson did not help to solve the problem, he can discard it and tackle the problem in a different way.

Summary

Coaches often identify skill training needs of students which the lessons in the Life Skills Coaching Manual do not meet. A coach can meet these needs by modifying the course: he can modify the course by not presenting some lessons; he may modify some lessons; he may alter the sequence of lessons; and finally, he may invent different lessons.

Anyone creating a lesson would find a useful model in the lessons in the Life Skills Coaching Manual. The preparation of a written plan, even in outline, provides the coach with an important measure against which to compare his progress; such a plan does not require the elaborate detail contained in the Life Skills Coaching Manual.

Training needs may arise from any or all of four sources: peculiarities of the group of students; unexpected developments within the group; persistent failure of individual students to reach skill objectives; failure of the entire group to achieve a particular skill objective.

A coach creating a lesson can readily apply problem solving processes: by describing the problem, he creates an overview; his definition of the problem leads to the statement of the objective; his choice of solution to the training problem leads to the application of the lesson; the lesson outline becomes his plan for implementation of his solution to the training needs.

A coach can develop a two-dimensional chart to help him relate training objective to methodology. The list of training objectives on training needs on the vertical dimension, and the training methodologies along the horizontal axis create a matrix of cells each of which relates a training need to a training method. Forcing the relationship provides the coach with an heuristic which can yield ideas for meeting training needs.

Finally, the coach should evaluate the whole lesson carefully in the light of its success or failure and retain it, revise it, or discard it.

A DESCRIPTION OF THE LIFE SKILLS COURSE

- R. Himsl

Introduction

The definition for Life Skills implies the overall objective of the course. The definition states, "Life Skills means problem solving behaviors appropriately and responsibly used in the management of personal affairs." The student practises these problem solving behaviors in a series of sixty-one lessons organized to ensure a cumulative skill development; a skill taught and practised in one lesson receives further practice and use in subsequent lessons. Two lessons, Evaluating Problem Solving Skills and Evaluating Employability enable the students to examine the skill development they have achieved by the end of the course.

The course content originates in the needs of the students. The needs to develop a readiness for learning and to develop a learning group, for example, dictate the nature of the very early lessons in the course, and the students express their interests, and listen to other students express their interests during the first lesson. Because the course methodology makes considerable use of video tape recordings, and students need the feedback it provides, the early lessons acquaint them with the use of video equipment. A like identification of need requires that students learn the skills of effective listening early in their training, and the early lessons train students in effective listening. In such a way, students accumulate a repertoire of skills which enable them to profit from later experiences in the course.

The definitions of the term Life Skills contains a reference to "...the management of personal affairs," which describes the area of needs a Life Skills course seeks to meet; the personal affairs mentioned in the definition include those which arise from study of five areas of concern: self, family, community, job, and leisure. Study of these five areas of personal concern provide meaning to the skills which the course aims to train the students to use.

The course design provides the student with an opportunity and the skills to study his problems, or to put it another way, to study himself as a problem. Though that sounds pretentious, it casts the direction of

TABLE I

SUMMARY OF SKILLS TRAINING IN THE LIFE SKILLS COURSE

Lesson
1. Meeting One Another
2. Seeing Oneself on Video
3. Surveying Life Skills
4. Listening to Others
5. Describing Feelings
6. Relating to Others
7. Giving and Receiving Feedback
8. Expressing Trust in the Group
9. Depending on Others
10. Rating Behaviors in Groups
11. Giving A Talk
12. Describing Feelings II
13. Debating: To Work or Not to Work
14. Identifying Assumptions
15. Relating Behaviors to Roles
16. Fighting Fairly
17. Learning Helpful Behaviors in Groups
18. Explaining Life Skills to Others
19. Communicating with Children
20. Trying a Creative Exercise

Skill Classification

	Identifies interests	Receives VTR feedback	Uses 5W-H skill	Teaches a skill	Role plays	Uses listening skills	Describes feelings	Uses feedback	Uses helpful behaviors	Uses public speaking skills	Identifies assumptions	Gathers facts and ideas	Generates ideas and alternatives	Defines a problem	Uses interview skills	Plans in a group	Applies skills in new situations	Contracts	Interprets data	Plans for goal achievement	Predicts and evaluates	Analyses and sequences	Uses negotiation skills	Deliberately changes behavior	Uses decision making skills	Uses job application skills
1.	X																									
2.		X																								
3.		X	X	X																						
4.		X		X	X	X																				
5.						X	X																			
6.							X																			
7.		X		X	X			X																		
8.								X	X																	
9.									X																	
10.									X																	
11.						X				X																
12.							X																			
13.						X		X		X																
14.											X															
15.											X															
16.					X	X	X		X		X															
17.								X	X		X															
18.										X																
19.				X	X							X														
20.												X														

Lesson

21. Giving Help with an Individual Problem
22. Identifying Strengths of the Family
23. Producing Ideas About Leisure Time
24. Looking One's Best
25. Planning and Preparing Low Cost Meals
26. Handling Drinking Problems
27. Solving Problems With a System
28. Using Fact Find Questions
29. Portraying Oneself
30. Finding Out About Drugs
31. Evaluating Membership on a Team
32. Handling Sex Problems
33. Telling Children About Sex
34. Dealing With the Landlord
35. Helping a Child With a School Problem
36. Writing Tests
37. Setting Goals
38. Setting Goals for Children's Behavior
39. Defining the Problem
40. Quitting the Job

Skill Classification

	Identifies interests	Receives VTR feedback	Uses 5W-H skill	Teaches a skill	Role plays	Uses listening skills	Describes feelings	Uses feedback	Uses helpful behaviors	Uses public speaking skills	Identifies assumptions	Gathers facts and ideas	Generates ideas and alternatives	Defines a problem	Uses interview skills	Plans in a group	Applies skills in new situations	Contracts	Interprets data	Plans for goal achievement	Predicts and evaluates	Analyses and sequences	Uses negotiation skills	Deliberately changes behavior	Uses decision making skills	Uses job application skills
21.													X													
22.										X	X	X														
23.												X	X													
24.												X	X													
25.											X	X	X	X												
26.		X	X						X				X	X												
27.			X								X	X		X												
28.					X							X		X												
29.				X							X			X												
30.						X						X			X											
31.											X					X										
32.															X		X									
33.					X												X									
34.					X								X		X		X	X								
35.								X					X	X		X	X		X							
36.	X											X							X							
37.													X			X			X	X						
38.																X	X			X						
39.	X				X						X									X						
40.					X							X									X					

Lessons

41. Getting Out of a Money Trap
42. Analyzing a Task
43. Demonstrating Life Skills
44. Raising a Family Alone
45. Managing Money
46. Surveying Marketable Skills
47. Exploring Job Preferences
48. Exploring Expectations of Employers
49. Using Community Agencies Effectively
50. Availing Oneself of Legal Services
51. Planning for One's Survivors
52. Taking Responsibility in the Community
53. Handling Changes in My Behavior
54. Building Strengths of the Individual
55. Dealing with Discrimination
56. Interacting with Police
57. Using Parliamentary Procedures
58. Voting in an Election
59. Applying for a Job
60. Evaluating Problem Solving Skills
61. Evaluating Employability

Skill Classification

	Identifies interests	Receives VTR feedback	Uses 5W-H skill	Teaches a skill	Role plays	Uses listening skills	Describes feelings	Uses feedback	Uses helpful behaviors	Uses public speaking skills	Identifies assumptions	Gathers facts and ideas	Generates ideas and alternatives	Defines a problem	Uses interview skills	Plans in a group	Applies skills in new situations	Contracts	Interprets data	Plans for goal achievement	Predicts and evaluates	Analyses and sequences	Uses negotiation skills	Deliberately changes behavior	Uses decision making skills	Uses job application skills
41.													X				X			X	X					
42.												X		X					X			X				
43.													X	X			X			X		X				
44.											X	X	X			X			X	X	X	X				
45.			X										X							X	X					
46.																					X	X				
47.	X												X									X				
48.														X								X				
49.					X					X										X		X	X			
50.												X						X			X		X			
51.			X								X							X				X				
52.																X				X			X			
53.				X													X	X			X			X		
54.					X															X				X		
55.													X							X			X	X		
56.									X			X									X					
57.																									X	
58.												X													X	
59.												X		X			X			X		X				X
60.				X				X											X	X	X	X		X		
61.								X												X	X			X		

the training rather well, because the student does examine assumptions about himself; he analyses his strengths and weaknesses and sets personal self improvement goals; he develops related plans, learns an array of effective skills and practises them in a variety of situations. Finally, he evaluates his effectiveness in the use of the skills, and he plans for further personal development after completing the Life Skills Course. In short, he uses problem solving processes to deal with his personal situation.

Lesson Sequence and Skill Development. Table 1 shows the relationship between a proposed sequence of lessons down the left side of the table, and the sequence of skill classification across the top. Along the right side of the table the crosses in the body of the table relate skill classification to the lesson in which the students practise the specific skill.

Study of Table I shows a progression of skill practice as the students move through the sequence of lessons. The objective for each lesson specifies the skills which the coach aims to have the students practise; most objectives specify more than one skill, and some few provide practice in a number of closely related skills. Many of the lesson objectives call for a recurrence of skill practice: The lesson, Seeing Oneself on Video for example, brings the students into a first contact with the video equipment; however, Table I shows that four other lessons encourage the use of VTR equipment although they do not specify it in the objective; in a like manner, lessons provide for recurrence of much skill practice even though the objectives do not always specify such recurrence.

Table I needs one further comment. The skill classification listed at the top of the table, does not identify specific skills, except in one or two instances. Each skill classification includes more than one skill. The classification of listening skills, for example, includes the skills of using eye contact, using positive body posture, and following verbally and non-verbally; the public speaking skills classification includes the skill of maintaining eye contact, use of gestures, opening forcefully, speaking clearly, speaking to the audience, using facts and figures, and challenging the audience. In such ways, the skill classifications subsume more than one skill.

The first three lessons in the suggested sequence of lessons comprise an introduction to the training sessions, a survey of the content and the processes contained in the course. The first lesson, Meeting One Another, introduces the student to others in the group and gives them a first experience of the coach's style. The experiences in the lesson enable him to interact with other members of his group. He sees that these people, strangers to him until now, have things in common with him, which only says that he sees himself in others. The second lesson, Seeing Oneself on Video, provides the students with their first contact with the videotape. This early introduction of the videotape has a dual purpose: it presents the videotape in a non-threatening manner, and thereby enables the coach to use it in subsequent lessons; and it starts the student on the self study which forms much of the Life Skills training.

In the third lesson, Surveying Life Skills, the student looks at the Life Skills Course and its relationship to his own needs. He talks about the course content and develops an intuitive definition of Life Skills. The survey of life skills contained in the lesson helps him look at certain life problems from a new perspective. Ideally, he recognizes a new situation in which he sees useful possibilities. Later elements of the course enable him to refine these possibilities into meaningful development goals for himself.

The lessons in the sequence from the fourth, Listening to Others to the eighteenth, Explaining Life Skills to Others, intensify the actions which the introductory lessons forecast. The first lesson, Listening to Others, trains the students in the skills of effective listening, or more broadly speaking, in effective attending. The students show the speaker that they listen when they use these skills, and they also prove that they listen. An early placing of this lesson in the sequence provides a skill development that enables the students to participate effectively in the instruction which follows. The feedback from videotape plus the feedback from other students which the lessons in this part of the sequence provides, helps the student see himself in new ways. He collects data about himself, learns to identify and describe his feelings, and he examines assumptions about himself. The combination of knowledge, feeling and the demand, cause most students to discover things about themselves. The lessons develop both satisfaction and expectation on the part of the students; at some point, they often find it valuable to explain these feelings and changes to others. The lesson, Explaining Life Skills to Others, provides an opportunity for this. By the time the students come to this lesson, they have received training in the skills of public speaking and of speaking to small groups of people; they have used the videotape extensively in their own skill development and usually feel able and willing to present the necessary explanations.

In the sequence of lessons from the nineteenth, Communicating with Children, to the thirty-ninth, Defining the Problem, the students continue the use of the interpersonal skills learned in the earlier lessons, and add to them an array of problem solving skills as indicated by the horizontal dimension in Table I; furthermore, the students practise their accumulation of skills within their learning group certainly, but they also start to practise them in situations and settings which take them beyond the immediate circle of their learning group, and the problems concerned with group building, as indicated by the lesson titles. The final lessons in this group bring the student to a consideration of his problems and goals. If all has gone well with him in his training, he has by this time an array of skills which should permit him to examine his own goals, or to look at his own problem. The lessons, Setting Goals, Setting Goals for Guiding Children's Behavior, and Defining the Problem provide specific skill instruction in processes which enable the student to create his own goals.

The next group of lessons in the suggested sequence, from the fortieth lesson, Quitting the Job to the fifty-ninth lesson, Applying for a Job, provide for further skill development as indicated by the skill list in Table I and they provide for the application of skills already practised, in a wide variety of life situations. Such a varied practice seems pedagogically sound: the student must transfer his skill from the training situation into a life situation and practice in that very act should assist him in making the transfer. The lesson sequence prepares the student for the use of his skills by intensive practise just before completion of the course. A scan of the lesson titles reveals frequent reference to skills related to the job, personal and family management and work in the community. The last lesson in this group gives the student opportunity to practise many skills related to obtaining employment; in this lesson, the students actually prepare documents which they could use in applying for jobs.

The last two lessons in the sequence, Evaluating Problem Solving Skills and Evaluating Employability seem logically placed. As used in the Life Skills Course, evaluation requires two actions: first, the evaluator assesses the quality of his skill performance, and secondly, he determines what he will do to improve the quality of his performance. In these last two lessons, the student works with the help of his fellow students to determine his skill development as they see it; then he states some goal for its continued development in the post training setting. The design of these last lessons permits the development of a satisfying, and outward looking conclusion to the formal training.

Modifications to the Sequence. The preceding paragraphs describe the sequence of lessons suggested in the Life Skills Coaching Manual and relate this sequence to the "logic" of the skill development sequence. Coaches working in training situations may find reasons in that situation which dictate changes in the sequence; they should not hesitate to make useful changes. Some training situations require the admission of students at times other than when the course "starts". In such a situation, the coach may have to decide that for most of the group, he will continue to use the lesson in his preferred sequence, but the newly arrived student will have to miss certain lessons; many of the lessons suggest ways of providing skill instruction for students who miss lessons in just such a way. Frequently, more experienced students can teach skills they know to newly arrived students in one-to-one instructional settings. In fact, the early introduction of the teaching skill in the course of skill development, provides the coach with the necessary resources to accomplish this.

The special needs and interests of certain groups may require the alteration of the sequence of lessons, or the dropping of some and the addition of others which the coach could create in response to the local need. By way of illustration, a coach might find that a lesson like Planning for One's Survivors had no relation to the needs of the group of teen-agers which made up his Life Skills group; the coach would omit such a lesson in the face of unanimous indifference to the topic.

The design of four lessons, Using Fact Find Questions, Giving a Talk, Giving Help with an Individual Problem and Describing Feelings II, permits their use in places other than that indicated by the sequence. A coach could present the lesson, Using Fact Find Questions right after the lesson Surveying Life Skills, or right after the lesson, Listening to Others, or just before the lesson, Solving Problems with a System, or just after that lesson, as suggested by the sequence. In each of these locations, it would have a certain relevance. And because its design provides individualized instruction, the Life Skills coach could use it to train students who enrol in the course at times other than the regular commencement.

The coach can recycle the lessons Giving a Talk and Giving Help with an Individual Problem to provide added skill practice. The coach uses the lesson, Giving Help with an Individual Problem on an "as needed" basis. However, he should not use it until the group has developed some strengths and cohesiveness. Perhaps he cannot use it much sooner than what the sequence in Table I suggests. After that, he could use it as often as needed and as long as it proves its use.

A coach might use the lesson, Describing Feelings II in the place suggested by the sequence. He might decide, however, to delay the use until later in the course by which time the students might value and profit from further practise in this significant skill.

Summary. The Life Skills Course contains a sequence of sixty-one lessons which a coach can use with a group of students to train them in Life Skills. Life Skills describes problem solving behaviors appropriately and responsibly used in the management of personal affairs. The coach can use these lessons according to a proposed sequence based on the cumulative nature of skill development. The nature of the training situation and the needs of the students may require alterations and deletions from the sequence; a coach may use some lessons more than once because the design of the lesson permits some repetition and student needs may make it desirable.

TRAINING THE LIFE SKILLS COACH

- Paul Curtiss and Ronald Friedman

William Kvaraceus, speaking of the education of the disadvantaged, states: "One rather significant finding is that education has had relatively little impact on attitudes and behaviour. Changes do occur but the change is to produce more of the same... the school serves to reinforce what is already present."

The "already present" very often consists of ineffectual attitudes and behaviours, the results of a long process of conditioned inferiority. Discriminatory practices together with exploitation and privation are experienced constantly by the disadvantaged as they attempt to meet their basic human needs. These dehumanizing realities of daily existence convince the disadvantaged of their inferiority and result in feelings, attitudes and behaviours which reflect their frustration and hopelessness.

Kvaraceus continues "... a deliberate effort to change the self-concept of students will appreciably affect their total education as well as their personal experience." To do this requires that most teachers also must change.

A major change in the teacher's self-concept means a shift from his conception of himself as the operative agent in a selective, status-giving system to that of operative agent in a system which enables each individual to develop fully his pre-existing potential.

There exists now a body of well-documented research which very clearly sets out the teaching abilities necessary to accomplish the tasks.

Robert R. Carkhuff in The Development of Human Resources states: "The helper will be most effective during the early phases of helping when he responds to the helpee. When the helper responds to the helpee, the helpee becomes involved in a process of self-exploration leading to self-understanding."

He defines the responsive conditions which facilitate this process as follows:

a. Empathy or understanding - the ability to see things as another sees them and to communicate what he sees to the other.

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b. Respect or positive regard - the ability to respond to another in such a way as to let him know you care for him and believe in his ability to do something about his problem and his life.

c. Concreteness or specificity - the ability to enable another to be specific about feelings and his own experiences.

Carkhuff demonstrates that the "helper will be most effective during the later phases of helping when he initiates action". The helper gives the process direction, facilitating the helpee's deeper understanding of himself which leads to the development of strategies for acting upon this understanding. These coaching initiatives are described as:

a. Genuineness or authenticity - the ability to be real in a relationship with others.

b. Confrontation - the ability to tell another what you've been hearing as you've been listening to him. To advise the other of the difference in your respective perceptions of reality, then following through and working out the differences between you.

c. Immediacy - the ability to understand different feelings and experiences that are going on between you and another person. The helper must direct the helpee's attention to what is going on at that moment so that the helpee can more fully understand himself.

The responsive and initiative conditions are basic but must be supplemented by other abilities. Based on results of research, Nathan Gage in Teachers for the Disadvantaged states four additional characteristics or behaviours which are desirable.

a. Cognitive organization - the ability to apply dynamic sets of "organizers" or "models" to the subject matter which results in meaningful learning and understanding, as opposed to rote learning or memorizing. These organizers or models permit the discrimination of new material from that previously learned and make possible the integration of the new with the old at a high level of abstraction, generality and inclusiveness. This high level of abstraction and generality has the advantage that the product of all the learned material may be at a higher level than the learned material itself.

b. Orderliness - the ability to be systematic and methodical in self management. Consistency is demonstrated in the management of the learning situation.

c. Indirectness - the ability to give students "opportunities to engage in overt behaviours, such as talking and problem-solving, relevant to the learning objectives". Indirectness represents a willingness to forbear furnishing the student with everything he needs to know. It is associated with the teachers' ability to encourage participation and initiative.

d. Ability to solve instructional problems - ability to solve problems "unique to his work in a particular subdivision" of his calling. That is, teachers should be more proficient at solving problems in their specialty areas than teachers who are required to teach other subjects or persons of equal qualifications who do not teach at all. Good teachers need a unique body of problem solving skills.

The training program for Life Skills coaches is designed to equip the coaches with all these previously described abilities so that they may be in fact effective teachers and truly "authentic helpers".

Recruiting Candidates for Coach Training

In the disadvantaged sub-culture the role and status of each individual is established more by the group members than by external authority. Any attempt to assign a role or status from outside is normally resisted by the group; consequently, the teacher must operate within the limits of the group. This is exceedingly difficult for individuals long conditioned to the security of a role derived from the patterns or the institutions of the dominant middle-class culture.

The problems of learning experienced by the disadvantaged population involve both their communication systems and their value systems. Coolie Verner notes that this group has its own shared values, feelings, patterns of thinking and behaviours which differ from those of the dominant culture in significant ways. Communicating with adults from this sub-cultural group demands a real 'feel' for their values and the dynamics of their social system.

Most of the coaches are recruited from among mature adults who are of, or who identify closely with, the disadvantaged. It has been found that members of the disadvantaged population are apt to communicate more freely with and be more receptive to help from persons of similar socio-economic backgrounds. The Life Skills training team has three or four coaches supervised and assisted by a professional staff member. This approach appears to be a promising one. Indeed, involvement of the total team is considered essential to success of the Life Skills Program.

The candidates are recruited through the co-operation of a number of referral agencies according to some very general criteria for the type of person desired. Some of the major criteria are: willingness to write a number of pencil and paper tests, the results of which would determine in part their entry to the training program; willingness to attend an intensive pre-course experience after which a decision would be made on their admittance to the training program; minimum age of 23 years and maximum age of about 55 years; some characteristics demonstrating above average intelligence, e.g., formal education or some kind of equivalent, self-education, curiosity, fluency in language, broad interests, interests in job advancement, writing ability; interest in working with people as indicated by the type of work which requires this; need to have male and female candidates, of Indian, Metis and white backgrounds, and of socio-economic backgrounds similar to that of the Life Skills students.

Selection of Candidates for Coach Training

The selection criteria and methods of screening the candidates are integrated with the course content, methods and techniques so that the training program is tailor-made as much as possible to carefully selected candidates.

The candidates are tested. The variables that are measured, the tests that are used, and the criteria for selection are indicated in Table 2.

The test scores are examined for a pre-determined "pattern analysis" and the persons who "pass" participate in a "pre-course experience".

The two-day pre-course experience as part of the screening process, has four purposes: to provide the course instructors and other interested personnel with first hand information about each person from close interaction with and observation of each of the potential coaches; to give the potential coaches an opportunity to know the instructors and their peers better; to give the candidates an opportunity to hear of and encounter as much as possible the troubling aspects of coaching the Life Skills course; to give the potential coaches a taste of some types of activity which are unusual and possibly disturbing to students in the Life Skills Course.

The process is designed to ensure that the participants understand that it's a tough job to be a Life Skills coach and not for the timid. The experience purposely creates an atmosphere which is at times ambiguous and anxiety producing. The desired effect is to have the potential coaches identify and consciously share some of the anxiety induced in the behaviour oriented helping group.

TABLE 1

SELECTION CRITERIA FOR CANDIDATES OF THE "PRE-COURSE EXPERIENCE"

Variable Measured	Instrument/Scale	Score & Direction Criterion
Reading Comprehension	General Reading for Understanding (RFU)	Grade 11 or better
Preference for Working Situations	Kuder Personal Preference Record (KP)	(High = 70+, Low = 40, A 70)
	Preference for:	
	Group situations	high
	Stable (Familiar) situations	low
	Dealing with ideas	average or high
	Avoidance of conflict	average or low
	Directing others	average or low (if see style of leader on GHI)
Personality	16 Personality Factor Questionnaire (16PF)	(High = 7 - 10, Low = 1 - 4, Average = 5 and 6)
	Warmth	high
	Maturity	high
	Dominance	average
	Enthusiasm	high
	Conscientiousness	average or high
	Adventurous	average or high
	Sensitivity	high
	Suspicion	low
	Eccentricity	average
	Sophistication	average
	Insecurity	low
	Experimenting	average or high
	Self-sufficience	average
	Controlled	average
	Tenseness	average or low

TABLE 1 (continued)

Variable Measured	Instrument/Scale	Score & Direction Criterion
Intelligence - Ability to Solve Novel Problems	Raven Progressive Matrices	70 percentile or better
Vocational Aptitudes	General Aptitude Test Battery (GATB)	General - 110+ Verbal - 110+ Numerical - Average or better
Rigidity and Dogmatism	Scale of Self-Assertiveness and Rigor (SSAR)	Average or low
Spontaneous Flexibility	Alternate Uses (AU)	Average or high
Leadership Behaviour	Guilford Holley L Inventory (GHI)	no extreme deviations
Leadership Ability	Leadership Ability Evaluation (LAE)	Score of 10 or less: Look for ability to influence in a democratic manner
Vocational Interests	Geist Picture Inventory	Looking for high Social Service, average or less on Persuasiveness, average or higher on Literacy.

A Supervisor of Life Skills training "tells it like it really is" in coaching - frustrating, depressing, exciting and rewarding. He emphasizes how emotionally involving coaching can be and how the coach can have the problems of his group thrust upon him, and at times how the group can reject the coach. He gives examples of some of the contradictory demands upon the coach to be both sensitive and tough, subjective and objective, involved and detached.

The candidates view and discuss videotapes of intensive group interactions sometimes duplicated in the Life Skills Program. They take part in structured verbal and non-verbal experiences used in human relations training, and examine interpersonal and group problems which emerge. They also have the opportunity to gain deeper understanding of their own reactions toward authority figures, colleagues, needs for control, intimacy and belonging.

The intention is not to recruit people for the course who finish only to find that they can not take being a Life Skills Coach. There is no "selling job"; if anything, there is an over-emphasis on the problems of Life Skills coaching.

At the end of the two-day experience the candidates are asked whether they still wish to be considered for coach training. The candidates then rank themselves and each other on "probable success as a Life Skills Coach". These rankings, the observations made by the instructors, and the tests results are used to select the candidates for training.

Functions of the Coach

In the Life Skills course, a primary force to change behaviours is the behaviour-oriented learning group. It is the role of the coach to facilitate meaningful learning experiences and help the students to apply their knowledge and test new behaviours in solving problems in a wide range of life situations. How the coach functions depends not only upon the guidance he receives from the Life Skills lesson and his supervisor, but also upon his style, the nature of the group, his perceptions, his sensitivity and his competence in meeting the demands of new situations. Nevertheless, it is possible to classify the functions. Tannenbaum, Weschler and Massarik in discussing the role of a human relations trainer describe five main categories of behaviour which are closely related to the functions of a Life Skills coach.

1. Creating Situations Conducive to Learning. The coach helps structure some of the situations in which the students interact. If the coach presents his lessons skillfully, the relations

between students provide numerous focal points for useful learning. For example, the cautious use of brief socio-metric questions (indications of liking, desirability as work partner, recognition of potentially useful life skills, etc.) involving the members of the group in a given lesson typically yields data on the way each group member perceives his fellows. As each student experiences the various problem-solving and human interaction situations, the coach helps to diagnose and comment on them. Each student gains potentially useful insights, which in turn can be strengthened by peer evaluation and group discussion.

2. Establishing a Model of Behaviour. The coach provides a model for behaviour by his activity in the group, his approach to problem-solving, his acceptance of criticism, his non-judgemental comments, his willingness to evaluate his own behaviour, and his ability to raise questions and to express his own feelings. By his behaviour, he helps establish acceptance and freedom of expression in which the group can discuss interpersonal problems that otherwise might be avoided.

3. Introducing New Values. The coach, by his behaviour, implicitly or explicitly introduces new values into the group. The way he reflects feelings, clarifies comments, and actively behaves focuses attention on those problems which he feels the group should eventually handle. For example, his willingness to relinquish a position of authority and leadership carries with it a host of implications for the group.

4. Facilitating the Flow of Communication. The coach helps to identify barriers to communication between individuals. By raising questions, clarifying issues, and encouraging participation of all members of the group he facilitates the development of mutual understanding and agreement. Frequently when sources of difficulty are below the level of awareness, the coach, who is less personally involved with these difficulties than the group, is better able to identify the problems and help bring about their recognition and potential solution.

5. Participating as an "Expert". The coach, as an "expert", is often required to help the students learn problem-solving approaches and skills, basic communication skills, and other behavioural skills helpful in facilitating the group process. At times the coach introduces knowledge derived from his experience or from other sources, which the group may want in order to proceed with the solution of a given problem. However, many groups, particularly at their initial stages, push responsibility for their progress onto the coach. There are attendant costs to the students in doing this. By putting the coach in a position of answering questions, of making decisions for the group, of establishing goals and setting group values, the

students' involvement in the training is reduced. Therefore, the coach tries to leave maximum responsiblity for determinations affecting the group itself with the students.

There is one additional function of the coach which might often be overlooked - that of the "group member" function. The fact that the learning group is a cultural unit implies that it has all the potential aspects of group identification, cohesion and growth. The group builds expectations for all persons in the training situation, and this includes the coach.

The coach, of course, does not perform the typical membership function. From the outset he is a competent practitioner of group problem-solving skills. As the group begins to "take over" and begins to see the different contributions of the members, the group identifies a point in its growth when it overtly indicates that the coach "is now a member of the learning group". At the covert level, the coach might have been a member of the group long before the students identified this as being so. The coach may be a unique member, but as the helping group matures so does each member become unique in a number of different ways.

The coach training course consists of training in four major areas of competence:

1. Creative Problem Solving - establishes in the coaches the desirable teacher behaviours described by Gage. This cognitive thrust intersects with Carkhuff's "responsive and initiative skills" model at the point of "developing courses of action".

2. Structured Human Relations Training - equips coaches with expertise in the "responsive and initiative" skills delineated by Carkhuff. These are problem-solving skills applied to the specific challenge of interpersonal relations.

3. Coaching Techniques - prepares coaches in additional techniques and strategies necessary to carry out the "coaching functions". This unit develops functionality in all the process skills including group dynamics, role-playing, etc., which emerge in managing the Life Skills lessons.

4. Life Skills Course Content - familiarizes the coach with and enhances his own abilities in all the coping skills which the Life Skills student is expected to apply to his own life. It includes a coaching practicum and Life Skills dissemination material.

Course Orientation

The Life Skills coach training course involves learning to perform, at the mastery level, a wide range of behavioural skills; at the same time, acquiring a cognitive and theoretical understanding of these skills. It is an eight-week course with some 280 hours of scheduled training. An additional 10 hours per week of individual study is necessary.

During this course you must apply yourself with energy and commitment if you are to achieve the level of competence necessary to function as a Life Skills coach.

Furthermore, you are expected to grow in maturity, flexibility and life skills, since as coach, you are a model of the skills to be learned by the students. The students are also required to apply the skills to their lives; so too, the training you receive in this course must be similarly applied. You must be able to explain any illustration with personal examples from your life, the value, meaning, purpose, use and limitations of the skills taught, and model them for the students and in your daily life. This is a literal use of the "practise what you preach" admonition.

The coach training course and, to a certain extent, the Life Skills course are based on the "practise", "use" and "teach" (PUT) model. Thus you will practise skills in a training setting, then use and teach them in your life situation and in coaching Life Skills students.

The coach training course is designed to involve you actively in your education. The training emphasis is on the productive and creative aspects of learning, based on a solid foundation of behavioural skills and theoretical understanding. To learn something only to give it back in a test or other such minimally productive manner is not enough; what is important is what you do with the learning - what gains you make in new ideas, approaches, questions, procedures, methods, skills, problems, solutions and so on.

For instance, when we say that you are to understand something, the word "understand" means that you (a) state and explain it in your own words; (b) give realistic examples of it; (c) recognize it in various circumstances, how it can be used in different circumstances, and how it can be changed and adapted; (d) describe situations where it is appropriate, useful or helpful and situations where it is not (perhaps even harmful); (e) recognize connections between it and other facts, ideas, theories, methods, skills and approaches; (f) foresee some of its consequences; (g) state its opposite or converse; (h) use it in various ways and in various situations; (i) explain and teach it to others so that they, too, "understand" it.

This usage of the word "teach" involves explaining, illustrating with realistic examples, demonstrating and modelling the purpose, usefulness, value, limitations and situational constraints of the concept, approach or skill. The success of the instruction is measured by how well the student/trainee understands the material, not by any feelings of accomplishment the teacher may have about his performance.

Cognitive Learning

There are two basic methods used in the coach training course to ensure that you understand (as defined earlier) the content of the course. One of these is spontaneous discussion, the other, a log book.

Spontaneous Discussion

This method tests your ability to orally communicate your understanding of the course content and its relation to life and to Life Skills. At the conclusion of each unit, some or all of you will be selected by a random method to explain and discuss the content of the unit, integrating it with the contents of prior units, to the satisfaction of the group and the trainer. This procedure will also be instituted at any point in the course where the trainer feels there is a need for a summary and integration of content to date. The use of random selection techniques provides an equal change for each of you to be selected to discuss, and permits no one (not even the trainer) to know who will be selected ahead of time.

Any method the trainer chooses to use to accomplish the discussion goal is acceptable, provided it meets the random selection criterion. However, the following two methods are likely to be used: (a) a sub-group of three to six trainees is randomly selected to discuss the materials using one or more of these formats - group-on-group, interviews, panels, questions and answers, etc. All sub-group members are to demonstrate their understanding; (b) one trainee is randomly selected to begin discussion, then other trainees are subsequently selected to carry on, until all the material is covered. Anyone could be called on more than once or not at all in a given session.

No one is excused from discussion. If your number comes up, you must discuss and demonstrate your understanding. If you are not present, and do not have an excuse acceptable to the trainer, then you will be counted as if you could not perform.

Log Book

This method tests your ability to communicate in written form your understanding of the course content and its relation to life and to Life Skills. Throughout the course, you will keep a log book - a record of your journey through Life Skills coach training. In it, you record your reactions, observations, evaluations, thoughts, explanations, examples, criticisms, alterations, creations and any other productions or originations. These will arise from readings, films, field trips, lectures, talks, rap sessions, surveys, presentations, conversations, lessons given, exercises, tests, parties, and any other experiences you have during training.

Your log should be a fairly exact identification of what you did, sufficiently complete to inform a reader of all the circumstances of your experiences. You should give the author, title, source, publisher and pages read of any reading you do, along with a brief synopsis - enough of the event should be described to give a reader some idea of what went on.

The emphasis in this log is on your reactions to events and activities, discussions of matters you feel are of special importance, difficulties and misunderstandings discovered or resolved, strengths or weaknesses discovered, areas for improvement, interests discovered or developed, new approaches, ideas, concepts, etc. Anything belongs in the log book that shows what you have done, and what you have actively contributed toward your intellectual, emotional and behavioral growth, both as a personal model for others and as a Life Skills coach.

Again, emphasis is on your understanding (as defined earlier) of readings and events. Extensive summaries are discouraged, but brief summary statements may be necessary to clarify some of your comments. The feedback you receive from the trainer on your log book will guide you toward understanding and away from the rote summarization.

You log should be kept in a standard sized (8 1/2" x 11") note book. It should be reasonably legible, but definitely not retyped or copied over. The trainer will receive log books of randomly selected trainees on randomly selected days.

Course Materials

The following books are used during the course. A bibliography and supplementary readings are listed with the training units and are integrated into the unit material through the Cognitive Learning Instructional

Procedure. Instruction in operating and understanding the required audio-visual hard- and software is introduced at various points throughout the course on the first occasion that the particular equipment is to be used.

1. CURTISS, P. R., Warren, P. W., et al; The Dynamics of Life Skills Coaching. This book will be used throughout the Life Skills Coach Training course. The content of the book has been written and selected to increase your understanding of the training material or to assist you in coaching Life Skills students. A thorough knowledge of this material is essential.
2. HIMSL, R., et al; Life Skills: A Course in Applied Problem Solving; Saskatchewan NewStart Inc., 1972. This book contains the major theoretical statement regarding the Life Skills course; it must be thoroughly understood. (Now entitled: Readings in Life Skills.)
3. The Life Skills Coaching Manual; Saskatchewan NewStart Inc., 1972. This is the curriculum of the Life Skills course, including a guide and 60 lessons.
4. Manufacturers' operating manuals for video and other audio-visual equipment.
5. WARREN, V. B.; How Adults Can Learn More -- Faster; National Association for Public School Adult Education, 1961. This is a brief introduction to adult education useful for helping adults in upgrading programs.
6. PARNES, S. J.; Creative Behavior Workbook; Charles Scribner's Sons, 1967.
7. WARREN, P. W., Gryba, E. and Kyba, R.; The Problems and Needed Life Skills of Adolescents; Training Research and Development Station, 1972. This book describes the difficulties of growing up in the modern world. It provides initial specifications for adapting the Life Skills course for the general adolescent student population, with special consideration for Northern schools.
8. WILLIAMS, J.B. and Mardell, E. A.; Life Skills Course for Corrections; Training Research and Development Station, 1973. The initial specifications for adapting the Life Skills course for medium or maximum security correctional centres are described.

Contents of the Coach Training Course

UNIT I - INTRODUCTION TO THE DYNAMICS OF LIFE SKILLS COACHING

This unit includes information under the following headings:

A. Overview of the Life Skills Course

B. Life Skills Coach Training Course

a. Contents

Lecture, illustrated with audio-visual aids, to familiarize participants with the Life Skills course and provide an introduction and orientation to the Life Skills coach training course.

b. Readings

The Dynamics of Life Skills Coaching Unit I
Life Skills: A Course in Applied Problem Solving
as assigned.

UNIT II - USING AUDIO-VISUAL RESOURCES

a. Contents

"Hands on" training with the audio-visual hardware and related software used in the Life Skills course; special emphasis on video equipment.

b. Readings

Manufacturer's operating manual for video
The Dynamics of Life Skills Coaching Unit II

UNIT III - STRUCTURED GROUP PROCESS: PRINCIPLES AND PRACTICE

This unit includes the following sub-units:

A. Resolving Interpersonal Needs

B. BSD as a Model for Interpersonal Behaviour

C. Toward Effective Communication: Problems and Solutions

D. Helpful and Harmful Group Behaviours

E. A Comparison of Human Development with Psychological Development in Training Groups

a. Contents

You participate in and learn techniques for initiating and maintaining productive interpersonal relations within the group. This unit is focused on training behavioral skills and providing the conceptual framework which, when combined, result in the development of an effective Problem Solving Group.

b. Readings

The Dynamics of Life Skills Coaching Unit III A, B, C, D, E, as assigned.

Please note that sub-unit III E should be read at the end of Unit III following the experiential section.

UNIT IV - CREATIVE PROBLEM SOLVING SKILLS

a. Contents

You learn, through intensive practice, a wide array of strategies and techniques within a problem-solving system for attacking and resolving problem situations.

b. Readings

The Dynamics of Life Skills Coaching Unit IV
Creative Behaviour Guidebook - Sidney Parnes

UNIT V - STRUCTURED HUMAN RELATIONS TRAINING

This unit includes discussion under the following headings:

The Modelling Function

The Helping Process

Summary of the Objectives of Helping

An Approach for Achieving the Helping Objectives.

a. Contents

You learn that the effectiveness of any helping relationship is determined by the presence of certain dynamics. You learn to discriminate among and within these dynamics and to communicate them in the process of the relationship.

b. Readings

The Dynamics of Life Skills Coaching Unit V

UNIT VI - DEVELOPING COURSES OF ACTION

This unit includes the following sub-units:

A. Behavioural Counselling

B. Contingency Management

C. The Process of Balanced Self-Determinism Training

a. Contents

In these three sub-units, together with Unit IV, Creative Problem Solving, you learn how to use the processes and techniques of each as tools in helping students achieve their goals.

b. Readings

The Dynamics of Life Skills Coaching Unit VI A, B, C, as assigned.

* VI B - "Contingency Management in Education and Other Equally Exciting Places". This book will be made available by the trainer.

UNIT VII - ESSENTIAL LIFE SKILLS COACHING SKILLS

This unit includes the following sub-units:

A. Role-Playing

B. Questioning Techniques

C. The Case Method

D. Discussion Leading

a. Contents

You learn the process, technique and application of these coaching skills as they are used in the Life Skills course.

b. Readings

The Dynamics of Life Skills Coaching Unit VII A, B, C, D, as assigned.

UNIT VIII - THE COACHING PRACTICUM

a. Contents

You will demonstrate your understanding of coaching theory and practice through presenting life skills lessons to your peers and Life Skills students. Remedial skills training will be based on video recordings, and the evaluation of other coaches in training, of your trainer, and of the students.

b. Readings

The Dynamics of Life Skills Coaching Unit VIII
Lessons from The Life Skills Coaching Manual
as assigned.

UNIT IX - EVALUATING STUDENT PROGRESS

a. Contents

You learn to use a variety of evaluation instruments to measure student progress. You develop and test an evaluation method of your own which can be used by another evaluator.

b. Readings

The Dynamics of Life Skills Coaching Unit IX

Bibliography

* CARKHUFF, Robert R.; The Development of Human Resources, Education, Psychology and Social Change; Holt, Rinehart and Winston Inc., 1971.

GAGE, N. L.; "Desirable Behaviours of Teachings" in Usdan, M. D. and Bertolaet, R. (eds.); Teachers for the Disadvantaged; Follett, 1960.

HIMSL, R., et al; Life Skills: A Course in Applied Problem Solving; Saskatchewan NewStart Inc., 1972.

KVARACEUS, W. C., et al; Poverty, Education and Race Relations: Studies and Proposals; Allyn and Bacon, 1967.

TANNENBAUM, R., Weschler, I. R., and Massarik, F.; Leadership and Organization; McGraw-Hill, 1961.

VERNER, C.; "Cultural Factors and Communication", Adult Leadership, March, 1970.

* Recommended for supplementary reading.

COACHING LIFE SKILLS

- Terry Berscheid

INTRODUCTION

In the Life Skills group, the coach is dealing in behaviors, and in aspiring to model desirable behaviors he utilizes all his past experiences and training. He is a unique person. As a result, his coaching method cannot be "right" nor "wrong", "poorer" nor "better". More so than in any other situation, the coach must be himself. What is to be hoped for is that this "himself" is the "right" ingredient needed for that particular group.

Recently, I had a rewarding experience coaching a group. This is an attempt to focus on five sessions during the life of that group; to explain what happened so that you may have an opportunity to experience the moments of those sessions, and, in examining my coaching rationale, my style and the ways in which I use materials, perhaps obtain an idea of the frustrations, the joys, and the learning I lived through in those sessions.

MY INTERPRETATION OF THE COACHING FUNCTION

The Life Skills course is itself an applied problem-solving system. The member enters the group with a set of problems. These are usually poorly defined and the member may not be aware of the problem itself, only the effects as he interrelates with others. Life Skills examines techniques useful in resolving problems, and by studying, and perhaps solving some of his own problems while on the course, the member acquires a set of skills that he can apply in everyday problem-solving.

The format for each session follows five steps: planning, presentation of stimulus, evocation, practice and evaluation. The member responsible for the implementation of this procedure is the coach.

Terry Berscheid was the Life Skills coach at Merritt, B. C., during the winter and spring of 1973.

Who is the coach? Life Skills theory adequately defines the coaching role and training programs prepare the coach for his role. The functions of coaching include: creating situations conducive to learning, establishing a model of behavior, introducing new values, facilitating the flow of communication, and participating as an expert.[1] The coach is also a counsellor, a friend, an enemy to harmful behaviors, a protector by example, a leader, a follower, a helper, a force, a "doer" and above all, a person. The coaching function does not make him what he is; rather, in being himself, and using the tools of Life Skills to demonstrate his behavioral pattern of problem solving, the coaching role becomes a part of himself.

As a result, he may be in a coaching team, but remains an individual; he may be actively coaching from "nine-to-five" but is a practicing coach every minute of the day; he may apparently be fully educated in life, but, indeed, is constantly learning; he may be expected to use the same behaviors in all situations, but in fact practices and constantly experiments with new behaviors. The coach retains his integrity, he remains a whole, unique, individual.

In this way, the coach is not controlled by his role; the two become inseparable. He brings into his role all his successes and failures in interrelating, and the experiences all others he has met have had in interpersonal communicating. His age is an unimportant consideration; his viewpoints are.

When accepting a new coaching position, he must redefine himself; he must, because he is a concerned person, adapt himself to the needs of the group. He does this by being aware of the factors influencing the situation, and he establishes a course of action that suits his behavioral pattern. His goal is complex: to meet the needs of the group so that they may achieve their goals and thereby meet his needs.

I will be referring to a Life Skills course that was part of an adult training program in Merritt, British Columbia, to demonstrate how I employed this interpetation in my role as coach.

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1. Taken from The Dynamics of Life Skills Coaching, Training Research and Development Station, Prince Albert, Saskatchewan, 1973.

THE MERRITT, BRITISH COLUMBIA PROGRAM

I was the Life Skills coach in the adult training program in Merritt which was held for five months, January 8 - June 8, 1973, in the Shulus Community Hall, owned and operated by the Shulus Indian Band, three miles west of Merritt. The Department of Manpower and Immigration provided the funds for the program and the British Columbia Department of Education hired the instructors and organized the project. The Merritt School Board was responsible for the budgetary bookkeeping, staff salaries and material requisition.

Three instructors, Louise Berscheid, Sister Joyce Anne Kennedy, S.S.A., and myself, as well as a recent adult grade 12 graduate, Victor York, who was the teacher's assistant, were on staff. Resource personnel included Mr. I. McQuaig from the Kamloops office of C.M.C., Mr. B. Harvey, Community Development Officer for Indian Affairs and Northern Development, and Mrs. Marie Shuter of the Nicola Valley Indian Administration office.

All but a few students, who received no financial aid, were sponsored under C.M.C. training programs.

A total of twenty-one students were enrolled in adult 12, the remaining 40 in adult grades 8, 9, and 10. The students were evenly divided between Indian and white racial origin, two-thirds were "housewives" and the age range was 15-58 years.

The Department of Manpower and Immigration and the Department of Education's behavioral objectives for the project were to upgrade 56 students to a grade 8, 10 or 12 level of proficiency, and to incorporate a Life Skills course into the grade 8-10 program.

The behavioral objectives for Louise Berscheid were to upgrade level II and III students in communicative and functional English, and in Mathematics. Sister Kennedy was to upgrade Level IV students in English, Mathematics and Social and Natural Sciences. As Life Skills coach, and science instructor I was to meet the behavioral objectives of the Life Skills program and to upgrade all level II and III students in natural sciences.

The "Saskatchewan NewStart"-developed LINC (Learning Individualized for Canadians) program formed the basis of level II and III instruction. This program was supplemented with additional work in both English and Mathematics (to meet B.C. Vocational X standards) and a program designed to show the interdependence between the natural and social sciences. Life Skills was the only course in which the student did not do his own "time programming" whereby he determined how much effort, with the help of his instructor, he required to meet the objectives of the course. The Life Skills section was flexible to the extent that the student participated in group activities as long as they met his needs. Once he had met his goals, to the satisfaction of himself, his coach, and also to his fellow members, he terminated his involvement in Life Skills.

Life Skills began January 15, 1973. I delayed the start to allow me to become acquainted with the students so that I might better assign each to one of three groups. In the end, I arbitrarily placed each student in a group; my only term of reference was to achieve a well-mixed group of males and females; the groups were not formed on the basis of needs nor of goals.

All members were expected to participate in all their group sessions, if they were at school that day. Each group met three times weekly, spending one-half day in each session. All three groups functioned for four and one-half months, although individual members were active for between one and four and one-half months, depending on their date of enrolment and how quickly they achieved their goals. The policy of the school included continuous intake and continuous termination, and the Life Skills course followed this policy.

In addition to group work, because some Life Skills lessons such as "Meeting One Another" and "Finding Out About Drugs" were presented to the entire student body, each group member had experience in interrelating with fellow students who were not members of his Life Skills group.

MY COACHING RATIONALE

In the Life Skills Coaching Manual, the coach is advised that "they (the materials) do not make the course; they only help you make the Life Skills experience come alive..." It takes the coach's ingenuity to guide the group into a meaningful experience. In this section, I describe in detail five group sessions from the Merritt course. The concepts outlined here are my own and are not necessarily the same as other experienced coaches.

I consider the coach's goal to be complex: to meet the needs of the group so that they may achieve their goals and thereby meet the coach's needs. What, then, are these needs, these goals?

A need in the group is to overcome a lack of a "stage of mind", a skill, or a "wholeness". A goal in group is acquiring a state of mind, a skill, a wholeness.

In group, I have "short-term" and "long-range" needs and goals; that is, I have short-term needs that I hope to satisfy before the end of one or two sessions, and my short-term goals are to meet those needs. These "immediate" needs partially meet longer-term needs, and my immediate goals are steps toward the fulfillment of long-range goals. My needs in a group situation include desires for control, for affection, for inclusion, to give information and to receive information.

Control has to do with influence and authority. I feel I must have control in the group because I have a responsibility to provide the environment, stimuli and materials necessary for group maintenance so that each member may acquire the skills that are the goals of the program. To be able to provide that environment, the group must express its needs to me. In this way the group controls me.

Authority is inherent to my role as coach, but to be meaningful to me, I must earn my right to authority. My goal is to develop an equality between myself and the group members, but we must interract for a long time before I reach my goal - this is a slowly developing process and the Life Skills coach cannot expect to function on an equal basis with the group members right from the start of the course. As a trust relationship develops between the members and myself, through the process of communication, I gain more satisfactory influence and the group member more readily accepts my information,. methods and behaviors. As this trust becomes stronger, my influence increases and I am able to meet my need - to help the group member. As I meet this need, by helping the member reach his goals, my control over the group diminishes. I become less of a dictator, more of a facilitator, a resource, a catalyst for change.

I satisfy my desire for Affection - to be understood, to communicate on an emotional level with members of the group - by expressing my feelings, by "risking"; and I seek a "giving of themselves" by the other members.

But how much "risk" should I take? The risk would appear to be in exposing myself, revealing my opinions and my feelings. The fear inherent to risk is that I am leaving myself unprotected, susceptible to irresponsible attack. In reality, by risking myself I am "forcing" the group member to risk himself, and thus stimulating an environment for change. As I cannot expect any group member to become more involved than I am prepared to become involved myself, I must be willing to do much risking in order to facilitate an awareness and consequent behavioral change.

The limit to which I'll risk depends on my perception of the effect of that risking on the group; for example, if I felt that a past problem and the method I used to alleviate it would be beneficial in our examination of a skill or behavior, I would be prepared to volunteer it. I would not refer to an experience which I had, or am having now, that could have a detrimental effect on either our study of a skill or behavior, or would generate behaviors in the members with which they could not cope.

I have a need for Inclusion, to be a part of the group, to have the group members be concerned about me as a person, as a coach, and to be concerned that I reach my goals. I can meet this need by becoming concerned for each member as a person and by becoming concerned that he reach his goals.

This concern may be defined as a "pressure" upon me. These pressures come from within and outside of the group; outside pressures are related to my coaching role, such as, for example, the demands and expectations of the program sponsors; inside pressures include the group members' interrelationships with fellow students, other instructors, their community and particularly their families and relatives. These pressures become stronger as the member modifies his behaviors, which may force the other person to change his behavior; tense, frustrating emotions may be generated by this adjustment, the group participant becomes anxious for acceptance of his changed behavior and brings his problems into the group. I feel it is necessary, particularly when it is a family problem, to remain impartial - that is, to avoid expressing opinions - but to become involved by showing my concern for the participant, to deal in present behaviors and to seek a commitment to implement a plan of action which the member, with my support, develops to suit himself and the problem. The question I must ask myself is, "Whose problem is it?", to determine how I might help the member solve his problem. These problems, then, do not impose a burden on the group, do not hinder the group's progress toward their goals, but enhance the environment for the development of skills and each member's "self".

I desire to teach, to Give information and knowledge to the member and show him how to use it to advantage.

I believe that the member has within himself the answer(s) to his problem(s). In like manner, he has in his repertoire a number of skills useful in solving those problems, although those skills are often poorly developed, and he may not even be consciously aware that they are present. As a result, the traditional student-teacher role does not fit this situation; we are co-workers whereby we, along with the other group members, seek to solve a problem - to develop the skills necessary to use opportunities advantageously.

It is very difficult to accept "someone else's answer" to a problem when only I have all the information and know all the factors that enter into the problem. Even though it is much more difficult to devise a situation which will promote a "discovering" of the best course of action by the client himself, this is my objective. I can promote this by using several methods, such as brainstorming or brainstorming together with role-playing; for example, I may ask the client to choose others from the group to play the roles of the other persons involved in the problem, and then direct a series of role-playing scenes which may possibly give the client new insights into the problem, and perhaps a variety of possible courses of action that may resolve the situation. Then the group can assist the client in designing one or more plans of action to apply, can seek a commitment to use one of these strategies, and can prepare the client for the implementation of his strategy. The client must make the commitment, and must carry out the strategy himself. When the client has used his strategy in a real-life situation the group participates in an evaluation to determine whether the plan suited the problem or whether the client needs to design a new strategy.

In regard to "skills" the member can only be said to use it if a) he knows the appropriate skill; b) he uses it effectively whenever the opportunity presents itself. If the participant knows what skill to use in a situation but does not apply it, he does not have that skill. If the member uses the appropriate skill ineffectively, he is not competent in that skill.

I seek to Receive information from the group, to have new experiences. There are three sources of information: the content of the course (i.e., the materials), myself and the members. As I am considered the "expert", I am expected to have the necessary factual information.

The most difficult concept for the group member to accept is that his experiences, his viewpoints, are as important as this factual knowledge.

I endeavor to persuade the group to accept the non-judging approach, which makes brainstorming a successful technique, to discussions in the group, so that each member may freely express his attitudes without fear of being judged or criticized. Acceptance of this approach is slow to develop, but when approved by the group as appropriate, the members begin to give more information about themselves and the group experience becomes more meaningful to everyone.

If risks are taken, the group will develop. Once the member realizes that the coach is developing along with himself, the member becomes more involved, the group identity strengthens and the group accepts responsibility for its own maintenance.

I have a need for Personal counseling. Interracting with the group, I encounter personal as well as functional problems. Some of these, such as a conflict between a group member and myself, or a participant's lack of motivation, can be dealt with in the group. For some problems, however, such as a personal problem which if identified could have a detrimental effect on the group, or an uncertainty as to how to handle a member's emotional problem, I seek "outside" help, from other instructors, perhaps an agency which handles such problems or my former trainers. It is important that the coach establish a one-to-one counseling relationship with whomever he can develop a trust relationship.

Having defined my needs and goals as coach, how does the member, with his needs and goals fit into this situation?

The member's age, racial origin, sex, religion, background and home-life influence his participation in the group and his self development.

His Age influences his opinions: in general, the older he is, the more varied his experiences. Thus, his attitudes, his output of information and the amount of personal development he has experienced will have a bearing on his views.

Racial origin is important, particularly in situations in which more than one race is represented - this tends to generate a particular set of interrelating behaviors. His cultural philosophy may dictate what kind of behaviors should be used in a particular situation.

Sex: if male, his behaviors and involvement in group will tend to differ from the behaviors and involvement a female will put into the group. The traditional male and female roles have a strong influence on group development. In addition, a member will tend to use behaviors toward a person of the opposite sex that will be different than the behaviors utilized in relating to someone of the same sex.

Although I don't bring Religion into the group function, it may be an important factor in the individual's self development, depending on his beliefs and religious taboos.

The participant's Background matters; not only because of the information that is possible when experiences are varied, but also because his behavioral pattern is conditioned by his child-to-adult experiences as well as his occupational and recreational maturity.

His present Homelife situation may seriously control his involvement in the group, as this is often kept "secret" from the other members. But there are also more subtle considerations; for example, a female who plays a subservient role to a dominant male at home, may tend to behave subserviently to a dominant male group member.

These factors affect my feelings and behaviors. In order to cope with these, I must be aware of their effects on my behaviors.

We are learning from each other and are both developing ourselves; I cannot say that I am "better" developed than he, although I may have undergone more changes - we are only at different levels of development. I am forced to accept the participant as my equal.

A new participant frequently comes into the group with a poor image of himself. Such a person will use behaviors congruent with this self-image, causing others to react negatively. He has accepted these behaviors toward himself, by submitting to them, and has suppressed his self-development. When entering the group, he is confronted with my role and authority; he does not expect to be treated as an equal. To counteract these harmful behaviors, I seek to bring the member to an awareness of his assets and liabilities, and then to encourage a positive attitude based on his assets, while we work together to transform his liabilities into assets.

New arrivals commonly have few expectations for the group experience. Sometimes, a member will have no conception of the benefits or rewards to be received. This may be due to ignorance of the group function, or because he has never had an opportunity, or he may even have considered taking part in a self-development group situation. Occasionally, the member has been placed in the group without his consent; for example, on enrolling in an adult training program, he automatically is placed in a Life Skills course without receiving an explanation of its purpose. More often, he has been informed of the group and its procedures and invited to participate, but his understanding of group function is so limited that he accepts the invitation out of curiosity with an attitude of, "I'll try it and see what it's all about." Consequently, his goals are ambiguous, or lacking, and as a coach I must develop an awareness in this member of his needs and assist him in formulating goals. The lesson Surveying Life Skills is suitable. Generally, on becoming aware of his needs, he tries to establish long-term goals but has no ideas on how to reach them, as for example, "to express myself better". I must use my expertise to influence a re-definition of these objectives as shorter-term "stepping-stone" goals. My intention is to establish a process that follows this pattern:

1. use behaviors that meet sessional goals.
2. analyze the result and develop new sessional goals.
3. reach the short-term goals.
4. evaluate whether or not the short-term goals fulfill the objectives.
5. formulate or modify, if the objective is not being met, further short-term goals.

Life Skills sessions are "practice environments" for studying and using new skills. In order to achieve competency in a skill, the member must function outside the group in "real life" situations. He may enlist the help of a fellow student with whom he can identify and with whom he has developed a trust relationship. This "sub group" will test out the new skill and later report its successes to the other group members.

APPLICATION OF RATIONALE AS STRATEGY

In this section my objective is to focus on my style and behaviors in using the materials of the Life Skills course.

As a coach, I "model" behaviors in group. I am aware of the "conduct" that is appropriate for the situation and I attempt to use it effectively. Modelling, however, is not puppetry. I do not use the behavior as I think it would be used by others if it would not "suit" me; I adapt the behavior to my personality pattern so that I fulfill the criteria of that behavior while demonstrating how it fits in with my "style".

Modelling involves honesty: I must be committed to the behavior if I am to use it effectively and appropriately. I can not consistently model behaviors that are unsuitable for me, although I am able to demonstrate such behaviors, and then point out the behavior I feel is appropriate for myself.

I am very conscious of my "speaking style". I strive to establish an atmosphere in which the group may undertake a calm, responsible analysis of behaviors by carefully choosing my words and paying particular attention to the tone of voice, and inflections I put into verbal communication. I feel that I can facilitate the process of "drawing the member out", causing him to become aware of his behaviors and to practice new behaviors, by using a quiet, flowing style of speech, and by addressing myself directly to the participant, one-to-one, with empathy and understanding.

If I feel that a participant is being incongruent - using a behavior that "does not suit him", and which may be harmful to himself or others - I may use the confrontation process to bring him to an awareness of the effects his behavior has, particularly on myself. I prefer to support another member's confronting this behavior rather than my doing so, if possible,because it affords the confronter an opportunity to express his feelings, and thereby increase his development and be more effective, as the confrontation is coming from a peer who is considered to be an equal, whereas my authority may hinder acceptance of the feedback. Confrontation requires that the person confronting show empathy for the person being confronted, and be prepared to help in examining the negative behavior to determine why it is not appropriate for the situation. If the confronted member chooses to adopt a more suitable behavior, the confronter has a responsibility to assist the member in adjusting to the new, congruent behavior. No one has a right to compel a member to practice a new behavior that the member feels is unsuitable. The effort would be futile anyway, as the member would not voluntarily use a behavior he considers unacceptable.

I retain control of the group's functioning by developing an atmosphere of free expression, as explained in "Receiving Information": I express my feelings toward each member directly, and toward the whole group, and I encourage the same expression from each member. As they become adept at expressing themselves, I give the group more responsibility in helping to plan and develop the sessions. The group, in sharing this responsibility, realizes the need for guidance in order to ensure that the sessions are a success, and consequently turn to me for leadership. I will be able to influence the group in this way as long as I am able to lead the group toward its goals.

My method of identifying member and group needs is dependent on my awareness of each member's behavior pattern. I establish situations and introduce stimuli to evoke the behavior I wish to focus upon. To determine how effectively the members use the attending behaviors, for example, I set up a situation. I video-tape the interviews and then analyze them with the group and we identify and discuss the behaviors that were used. Prior to this discussion, I will have modelled, without pointing out, the appropriate behaviors. I guide the discussion so that the members eventually understand and identify the appropriate behaviors in the group. Then I encourage each member to make a comparison, in the group, between his and the modelled behaviors. By now the member is aware of any deficiencies in his modelled behaviors, and hopefully, is motivated to improve his deficiencies. We can now work on a definition of his needs, which the member does himself under my guidance and support. His needs are next redefined as goals, as for example, "I need to be able to listen to others more effectively," which becomes a goal to learn how to use the attending behaviors effectively in all appropriate situations. These goals, if long-range, are then broken down into shorter-term goals.

The sum of these goals constitute the group behavioral goals. In addition, the group develops maintenance needs, some of which are functional, such as needs for group unity, rules of procedure, hours, etc.; and others which are behavioral, such as the need for "gatekeeping".

My disposition can be a factor in the success or failure of a session. I am normally "outgoing", and my style is controlled, but lively and enthusiastic; this generally helps me develop a healthy attitude toward the learning situation in the participant. When I have an "off-day", my feelings may dampen the members' enthusiasm, and they will have difficulty in meeting their needs during that session unless I take action to prevent this from happening. I accomplish this by identifying my "mood of the day" and by making a commitment to the group to work harder at meeting their needs. This is valuable because it causes the member to become aware of his own feelings, and being informed of my disposition he is able to cope with it and perhaps help me resolve those feelings while working harder to meet his own needs. In effect, I am modelling a behavior that I hope he will add to his repertoire.

The coaching techniques I use in the sessions include: discussions, questioning, force-field analysis, brainstorming, role playing, and use of outside resource personnel. Perhaps an example would help: in using resource personnel, I strive to have them participate in the group on an equal basis as much as possible. The members have a group identity and feel comfortable in their surroundings, so that if I only give the group a vague idea of the guest's occupational identity, having previously informed the guest that I would be doing so, they frequently feel more at ease with the guest than the guest is feeling in this situation. One session in Merritt involved the Public Health nurse who suggested and brought along a film dealing with communication between sex partners. The entire student body, including the three Life Skills groups, participated in this session. One group organized and handled the mechanical functions of this session, and this group also led the discussion, which I set up using a modified "fishbowl" or vignette structure. As the topic for this session could be threatening to some, and because the group was very large - sixty people - I had the organizing group form the inner circle, along with the public health nurse, while the remainder formed the large outer circle. The inner core people opened the discussion by expressing their feelings toward the film, as they were accustomed to doing in group, and as several of them were single parents, most of whom were separated or divorced, the discussion was lively and a lot of viewpoints were expressed. These inner core people treated the nurse as an equal, and invited her contributions but did not allow her to control "their thing". A bonus that I had built into the discussion structure was that, because the discussion was lively and controversial, outer circle people would frequently get so involved as to speak out, and when this happened, the inner circle would open a space and invite that person into the discussion, and then ask him to repeat his words so that they could react to his message. Gradually, the inner circle expanded to a point where those still in the outer circle were all invited into the discussion; the result was that those who wished to participate actively had identified themselves by moving into the inner circle while those who wished to participate passively - that is, listen only - remained outside the discussion circle. This method is particularly useful if the participants realize that a passive participant, one who does not express himself, is still getting as much out of a discussion as those who are actively participating. I generally follow the procedures recommended in the Life Skills manuals when using such techniques.

In using the discussion technique, I may assume leadership, but prefer to either invest leadership in a member or allow the group to assign a member as leader for the session, or part of the session. I do not like to leave the group function without any leader, as this tends to cause the group to get off the topic. When the group is given the task of assigning leadership, I allow them to choose whomever they wish, using whatever means they wish. Near the end of their discussion, I ask for information on why they chose the leader, how the choice was made, and for feedback, first from the leader on being chosen and on being responsible for the group's guidance, and then from the group on the leader's performance. In leading the group, the guide becomes aware of his behaviors and must bring all of his skills into action. On observing, and then being asked for feedback on the leader's performance, the group becomes aware of the skills he used and each member inwardly compares his skill competency with the leader's skill performance.

When presenting an exercise, I try to seek an affirmation that the group is placing trust in me, sometimes simply by "checking-out" whether they are willing to "try something" (being deliberately ambiguous), and then I offer as little information about the exercise as possible in introducing it. I frequently ask the group to refrain from value judging until the discussion is completed. If I perceive, from the discussion, that I have not achieved my purpose in presenting the exercise, I may try it again or try another technique, depending on the response I predict the group will make to another attempt.

I obtained the "content" for the sessions from three main sources: Saskatchewan NewStart and Training Research and Development Station publications, particularly the Life Skills Coaching Manual, Socanic Coaching Manual and the coach training handouts; the University Associates Press three volume Handbook of Structured Experiences for Human Relations Training, and the series of Leadership Pamphlets, prepared by the Adult Education Association of U. S. A. These materials are flexible enough to allow adaptations, because they generally differentiate between procedures which should not be modified and those that may be adjusted to the situation. In addition, when I could not find a resource that covered a situation, I developed my own materials, which were topical, and they were not retained after the session.

I used the Socanic Coaching Manual in two ways, a) as resource material to help me in preparing and implementing a lesson - several of the Socanic lessons cover the same topic, but from a different approach, or they use a different stimulus - and b) to reinforce skill development after using a Life Skills lesson, that is, the Socanic lesson was used for added practice in the skill.

For the first reason, I used lessons such as Problem Solving in a Group, Speaking for Your Audience, Why Listen?, Speaking in a Group, Feedback, Making Your Meaning Clear, Why Save, Introduction to Human Growth and Development, Roadblocks to Communication. In fact, whenever preparing a lesson, I scanned any Socanic lessons on the same topic to determine whether or not I could extract some information, an exercise, or a concept for use in the Life Skills lesson.

To reinforce skill development, I chose Socanic topics such as Effective Listening, Speaking in a Group, the two Individual in a Group lessons, Using Your Voice, Introduction to Interviewing, Methods and Techniques of Interviewing and Attitudes and Interviewing. I feel that the coach will find that a Socanic manual is his most valuable resource in presenting a Life Skills course.

The setting for Life Skills in Merritt was a small basement room with two tiny windows, fibreboard walls and a linoleum on concrete floor. We did not have a carpet nor soft chairs or couches, and I do not feel I would conduct another course without some of these fixtures, as they can do much to create a healthy, relaxed learning environment; the discomforts suffered because of a lack of these fixtures can quickly dampen enthusiasm. I used an inadequate (elementary school style) flip chart, VTR, overhead, slide and 16mm projectors, cassette tape recorders, puppets, situational cards, newsprint, local and provincial newspapers, periodicals, comics and cartoons as audio-visual aids.

FIVE LIFE SKILLS SESSIONS

The following sessions are representative of the successes and failures this group experienced. The proof of the lasting benefits to the students of these experiences will be some time in coming; I feel, however, that their achieving their academic goals for this five-month program is a good indication that they are on the road to more successful experiences.

Session A: Listening to Others

Background: The group had met twice before, in introductory sessions in which I explained group methods and the Life Skills program. My feelings, as a result of those sessions, were that this group did not understand the concept of Life Skills, group function or skill development, and that none of the members felt a sense of belonging (to the group) or that the group was valuable to themselves or themselves to the group.

The group had been involved in a "Meeting One Another" session which had been presented to the entire student body at one time, and a "Broken Squares" session which was designed to focus on the need for co-operation and communication in all levels of the program. Both sessions were not intended as a group experience. This then, was the first opportunity that the group had to study, experience, practice and commit themselves to using a set of skills, by using the group experience process.

I had decided to do this lesson before the *Surveying Life Skills* session, as the group only had a vague idea of what skills they had or were lacking and of their level of personal development; I hoped that by examining a set of skills and by giving each member an opportunity to examine for himself his ability at using those skills in a representative situation, the group would come to a realization of the need to survey and practice new skills. I then planned to present the Life Skills checklist in the next session.

Advance Preparation: The lesson plan calls for VTR (videotape recorder) and audio cassette equipment as well as a flip chart. As our VTR had not arrived yet, I chose three examples of interpersonal relating from two earlier sessions, documented them carefully, and prepared them as cases for presentation in this lesson, as further evidence of the value of attending behaviors. As I didn't have the multi-media kit audio tape *Listening to Others*, I used the script in the manual to record one, but was concerned whether the message would be as effective, as I would be saying essentially the same thing twice in the lesson, once in discussion and once on the tape.

The Stimulus: I followed the suggested dyad-interview procedure, and as we did not have VTR, I mentally noted good and poor interviewing behaviors. Following the dyad exercise, I demonstrated the attending behaviors by interviewing a member in front of the entire group, but I did not point out the behaviors that I was using. Immediately after, I presented the lesson objective and then chose another member and once again interviewed him, but without pointing out the skills I had used. My objective was to put the member at ease, "draw" him into conversation, and hope that the others would see how I did this by using the skills I had just introduced.

This stimulus format was very effective. The members were excited about being allowed to communicate in smaller groups, but had difficulty in conducting an interview. This was valuable material for the evocation. My success in the demonstration interviews caught several members off guard; they presumed that my partners' talkativeness was natural, whereas I had deliberately chosen two of the group's quietest members.

Two incidents also added material for promoting the use of Attending Behaviors: a) I had to repeat the instructions twice to the entire group, and then, when they had entered their dyad structures and did not know what to do, I had to restate, to each dyad, the procedure to follow (the members had given me no verbal indication that they had not understood, even though I used very simple language the second time around, but were giving off non-verbal cues that they did not know what to do); b) no one understood the objective, even though it was written on the flip chart, and yet no one asked for clarification, so I said that I felt this was the case and then a few weakly agreed with me. I made plans to discuss this later in the session.

Evocation: I could not use the format suggested in the manual because we didn't have VTR. But I had a variety of other information: the good and bad behaviors I had observed in the dyad interviews, my own interview dyads, the frustrating repeats of instructions, and the group's failure to communicate their incomprehension of the objective. In the discussion, therefore, I noted the good points in the interviews - strong effort, genuine interest, and co-operation - and then described the Attending Behaviors individually, explaing and demonstrating each in detail and using exaggerated movements, to the delight of my audience. I sought a voluntary analysis, of his performance in the interview, by each member, supported each on his observations, even though I disagreed (to myself) with some, and invited comments on my own performance in interviewing the two members. For several minutes the group discussed my interview partners' topics and unusual talkativeness until one member stated that my use of good attending behaviors had been at least partly responsible for these successes; I agreed and "checked" this out with the two interviewees who supported the statement.

Now, to reinforce the technique of better listening, I played the audio-tape, and then followed the format outlined in the manual. The response to attending behaviors was very good. I chose to delay confronting the group on its poor performance in listening to the instructions and presentation of the objective, but did bring it up during a discussion in the skill practice phase of the session. My "light-hearted" approach to demonstrating the attending behaviors and then using them when discussing the stimulus was helpful in encouraging their use by the members.

I had been uncertain as to how effective the audio-tape would be, but concluded that even though I was narrating the same information in the taped presentation that I had just demonstrated, the group's attention was focused on the taped message because it was concise and well presented.

Skill Application: I also modified the format for this phase by presenting as the topics for the interviewing dyads, the member's feelings about my having to repeat the stimulus instructions and not communicating their misunderstanding of the objective. I did this by joining each dyad for several minutes and presenting my feelings about the topic, and then interviewing one member, following which he interviewed his partner on the subject. One might wonder what happened in those dyads that were waiting for me to come around; they practiced the movements of the attending behaviors and discussed the values of these skills and their feelings toward them. I achieved two things by using this modification: 1) the members had an opportunity to use interviewing in a "real" situation, and to use the attending behaviors to enhance their conversations; and 2) the members became aware of the increased information output made possible by using these skills, particularly in receiving instructions.

Evaluation: I promoted the "teaching practice" activity suggested, and was pleased, in the next session, to hear of many successes and some determined efforts that failed. I supported all in their attempts and encouraged each member to continue this activity. I further reinforced the lesson by having two volunteer members demonstrate the situations in which they used attending behaviors. This was the first time the group used role playing, although I did not identify it as a technique at this time, hypothesizing that it would be useful in a later session to refer back to it to point out the ease with which role playing can be performed.

Effectiveness of Session: My evaluation is based on what happened in the next session: first, several members proudly informed the group of the results of their out-of-session experiences; second, two members commented on being surprised at discovering how much they didn't know about interviewing and communication, and that they felt they could work more at listening to others. This was fantastic, because it led right into the topic for this session which was Surveying Life Skills.

I also feel that success was ensured by this statement in the stimulus: "Although you already use some of them (attending behaviors), we will learn more." By acknowledging that the participant has some competency in using these skills, this statement allows him to accept his poor performance as being all right, but gives him an incentive to do better.

I believe that by avoiding pointing out the attending behaviors when interviewing my dyad partners, I was able to cause the members to express themselves better, and by allowing the group to identify this themselves, I succeeded in presenting a strong argument in favour of these skills. Although this lesson focused on listening effectively, the participants also learnt how to communicate more effectively. I sometimes think that this lesson should be called Expressing myself more fully and bringing out better expression in others.

Session B: Relating to Others

I used this session to show how the group had developed in the space of three sessions. Again, I modified the procedure, this time to use the distance ranking exercise in a way that I prefer to the procedure suggested in the manual.

Background: Most recently, the group had completed the Describing Feelings lesson, and I felt that this would be a good time to see first how we inter-related as a group, and how well the participants felt each other was expressing himself. After having completed Listening to Others, we had done the Surveying Life Skills lesson, and each member had defined goals for himself. Our video equipment had arrived, so we had a session titled Seeing Oneself on Video, and our most recent session had made the group aware of their own feelings as well as the beginnings of a group identity.

I am giving the participants in this session pseudonyms which may help to give you an idea of their personal characteristics:

Pops:	Oldest member in the program (58) with a variety of experiences, and an out-going, if talkative, nature.
Peace:	A young girl who rarely said anything, except in whispers to her equally-quiet sister; both dropped out soon after this session because of baby-sitting problems.
Virginia:	A lively young girl who was frank in expressing herself, and concerned for others.
Elizabeth:	As quiet as her sister Peace, who was the only person in the group whom she would inter-act with on a voluntary basis.
Junior:	A young man who had been "the worst juvenile offender in town"; intelligent, but critical of anyone's ideas if older than he.
Moms:	A comfort to anyone who was having a difficult time; she was lively and outgoing in any group activity.
Constance:	A divorcee who kept to herself and was perceptive and judging in most situations, but willing to "try anything".
Bill:	Out for a lark, he never took himself or the course seriously and remained less than a month.
Bonny:	Intelligent; she was doing well in all her work until she became involved in a somewhat rowdy crowd, which dampened her enthusiasm.
Mike:	Amiable, but an alcoholic, Mike was "one of the boys" which kept him from achieving his goals in his studies.

Advance Preparation: I planned to modify the distance ranking exercise, so I carefully read the procedure in the manual to make certain that I wouldn't be omitting a necessary component. I did the advance preparation suggested in the manual, checked the video equipment, and had the necessary materials ready for use.

I was prepared to get into the lesson immediately, but as soon as the group was formed some members raised questions about the previous lesson. They wanted to be sure they knew what I was trying to do in that session. I supported their asking and went through the physical motions of putting my materials for this session aside - an action intended to communicate my willingness to discuss this topic - and allowed the discussion to continue until several members began giving non-verbal cues that they were bored with the subject. I identified my thoughts, checked out whether anyone was still uncertain, and stated that I was also ready to move on. I noted to myself that a few were somewhat startled that I had perceived the situation correctly, so I commented once again on the need for expressing ourselves. When I was certain the discussion was over, I went through the physical act of getting my materials together again.

Stimulus: As we were near the end of this session, I suggested that the members prepare their message plays - I used the procedure offered in the manual - for presentation in the next session. Pops, Peace, Moms, Bonny and Virginia were in one sub-group; Elizabeth, Mike, Bill, Junior and Constance were in the other. As this second sub-group was much younger in average age than the first, their message was concerned with drugs, while the first group's was concerned with first aid.

In the next session, I let the groups decide on their own, while video-taping the process, who would stage their play first, and then taped the audience reaction to the plays. I simply commented, "All right, next group" after the first group's play, and, "OK, let's form a circle" after the second, deliberately avoiding supportive or critical comments. As soon as the presentations were over, I rewound the tape quickly and shut off the equipment; "dilly-dallying" can ruin the atmosphere that these plays generate.

This message play effectively generated feelings in each member. I wished, however, that I had done a session on role playing before this, as the acting was constrained and everyone was hesitant to assume a role, apparently fearing audience criticism. (I did introduce the role-playing technique in the next session). I did not clock the plays, but noted that one member consumed his time at this, although I paid close attention to the role each member portrayed and the length of time he was "on stage" in comparison with the other members of his group. I video-taped audience reaction because of the feelings that each audience member was showing to the other group's play. I had a lot of information from this exercise, but I was uncertain whether the group members were aware of their feelings and the information they were receiving, or whether they were just sitting back and watching the play.

Evocation: When we'd formed the circle, I asked, "How'd you like it?", and then elaborately sat back to signify that I was ready to listen. Junior raised the first comments, noting that the first group's play was much less than five minutes in length, and Virginia retaliated for group 1, saying, "Youse guys just dragged your play out 'till it was long enough." Pops began justifying their play, (which he had organized) but Moms asked Pops what their play was supposed to be about, and then Pops and Virgina got into a lively discussion about the message. These two were so involved in their argument that they didn't hear Junior criticizing them and their play.

I decided to break the tension at this point by showing the videotape. I let the tape run without making comments, and then asked the group to discuss the tape. Moms supported the other group's efforts and noted that Bill was a bit of a clown and that Mike had performed well in front of the camera (he had expressed a dislike for it in the session on video). Pops started again, telling Peace and Bonny that they had acted well. I felt that we were now ready to study seriously the process used in the exercise. I'd become so anonymous during the preceding discussion that I startled the group by saying, "OK, let's move on ..."

Skill Practice: I replayed the tape and pointed out good behaviors that I observed, and asked for comments on these behaviors. In presenting the form that investigated feelings about the play, I used the suggested procedure, but on asking for feedback on what they had put on their forms, I became frustrated when Pops began his usual "rambling on", getting off the subject. After two attempts at meeting the objective of this discussion, I gathered up the forms, tallied the results and reported on them, keeping the individual tallies secret as Junior and Constance expressed a desire for this, and Peace appeared to be expressing the same thing through her non-verbal cues. I was worried that this might affect the outcome of the distance ranking exercise, but on reflection I now think that this decision had little effect.

Distance Ranking Exercise: I used the format in the manual except that I had everyone draw a line at the top of a long piece of newsprint, and then write "TOP" on that line. Then, I had Bill stand on the TOP line on my paper while I found a comfortable distance, and bent down to draw a line across the tips of my shoes, on which I wrote his name. Then I stood on his TOP line while he found his comfortable distance and wrote my name on a line across the tips of his shoes. Now I asked everyone to follow this procedure, performing the exercise in silence (which isn't suggested in the manual, but which helps to create an atmosphere conducive to self-awareness of feelings). When this was completed, I showed the group how to rank the results and then I charted out the results (rather than ask the participants to do their own). The results were predictable. I received a wide range of ratings, probably because those who ranked me most distant, such as Junior, were still "feeling me out", while Pops and Moms and Virginia had begun identifying with my aims and gave me low ratings. Pops and Junior received more high than low ratings, while Moms and Virginia were most consistently low, and everyone else had a mixture.

We then went into a discussion, in which Junior dismissed the whole exercise as being useless and Pops began to examine his own behaviors. The others were enthusiastic about the value of this experience.

This lesson was very suitable for focusing on how each of us "related" to each other. As the objective of the distance ranking was not mentioned when I gave the instructions, no one tried to back out of this section or manipulate his ratings to state how he would like them to turn out. This exercise, as well as the message plays, generated a variety of emotions which we were able to identify and analyze; the session strongly reinforced the objective of the previous lesson - to identify, describe and observe the effects feelings have on our behaviors towards others when in communication.

Session C: Producing Ideas about Leisure Time

I wish to show in this session analysis how I used the concepts presented in the lesson to enhance the learning process, without necessarily intending to meet the lesson's objective. I presented the brainstorming skills, which is one of the concepts in this lesson, during a workshop on Problem Solving, in which all Life Skills members participated together, and returned to the lesson at a later date to review the brainstorming skills and complete the objective.

Background to Brainstorming Session: Approximately one month after beginning Life Skills, I conducted a workshop on problem solving, in which one session was devoted to the brainstorming technique. Up to this point, the groups had been working almost entirely in the "self" skills, studying feelings, inter-relationships, better communication and public speaking techniques. The workshop lasted two days and brainstorming was examined in the afternoon of the first day.

Advance Preparation: I had studied my material on brainstorming and gathered together a number of items for its use, including an example of successful brainstorming: My wife has a small desk-top radio which has an attractice electronic display, encased in transparent plastic, as part of its superstructure. This display is not functional, however, and the working components for the radio are enclosed in the lower part of the radio, occupying less than one-third of the mechanism's volume. The display is simply eye-pleasing, but it does generate discussions, and its appeal is reflected in the radio's price, which is somewhat higher than most other radios of comparable quality. Apparently its developers were using new components in their radios, and because of this, had many left-over, useless parts. Through brainstorming, they found a profitable use for these waste materials.

The Stimulus: I reviewed the morning's lesson, Identifying Assumptions, in which we learnt that we "see what we want to see ... and hear what we want to hear". I then suggested, "If I show you this pen, and ask you what it can be used for, what would you tell me?" I received four responses. So I said, "You're right, but I'll bet that I can give you 20 more uses ..." and to a few guffaws, wrote more than 20 uses on the flip chart. One participant took exception to "an envelope", so I explained how this might be possible. I then presented the skill objectives, which I had posted on the walls for reference, and described brainstorming.

After a bit of discussion, I held the radio up and asked for an explanation of this equipment's purpose. Our oldest student said that it was a radio, and when asked to explain why he thought so, he said that he could see the tuning dial and its electronic parts (the display). I agreed that it was a radio, turned it on as proof, and then told him that he had made a false assumption; he could not see the electronic parts that made it a radio, as they were all (with the exception of the speaker) in non-transparent plastic in the lower part of the radio, and that the display was a gimmick. I went on to show how brainstorming had made this a profitable commodity. The atmosphere was now lively and enthusiastic, and was conducive to practicing the skill of idea-producing.

We moved smoothly through several practice sessions, using objects that were familiar around the school, such as rulers, books, ashtrays, light bulbs, cups, lead pencils and leather hats as stimuli. By using confetti, we retained the "light" atmosphere and even I had to pick confetti out of my hair that night.

After this practice, we discussed the process and I asked, "In what ways might we use brainstorming in our daily lives?" It wasn't long before someone suggested that we brainstorm that question, which we did, coming up with many possibilities which I asked the group to record for future reference.

We continued as suggested in the evocation phase and by the end of the session I felt confident that most members grasped the significance of this procedure.

The Class Session on Ideas about Leisure: This session was several weeks after I introduced brainstorming, so that I had to develop a new stimulus. Our group membership had also changed; Peace and Elizabeth had left the program because of baby-sitting problems. Bill (who simply quit) and Junior (who completed his course) were also gone and we had two new members, Little Sis and Lady. Our numbers were down to eight, now, the lowest in the group's life (it gained two more about three weeks later, and then joined forced with another group for the remainder of the course).

The Stimulus: I waited until the school's Friday afternoon activities had declined so that I could present this lesson (Friday afternoons were set aside for group activities which were educational, but "fun", such as having guest speakers, films, field trips and the occasional ball game). To stimulate the evocation, I started by reviewing the skill of brainstorming and used two minor school problems: "In what ways might we keep from tracking mud into the building", and " ... get people to pay up their coffee accounts", for practice. Then I raised the question, "In what ways might we spend this Friday afternoon?" I had revised the topic from "after-hours" to Friday afternoon leisure because in other sessions the group had expressed satisfaction with their leisure time, and did not feel they could make better use of this period; and I agree that most were very active and productive at this time. I followed the Objective Enquiry procedure in the manual and the result was an abundance of ideas for consideration.

Skill Practice: We discussed planning an activity, in which an Alcoholics Anonymous representative, who was the husband of one of the members, and who was willing to discuss his problem with the students, would be invited to speak to the student body. I introduced the Organizing for Opportunity form, and this helped in formulating the plan. We then studied the telephone and interviewing checklists, and the group decided to interview others on their thoughts about alcoholism and A.A. As everyone was enthusiastic about implementing their plan, I gave them the rest of the session to prepare for the activity.

Evaluation: Following the Friday afternoon talk by the alcoholic, we discussed his performance and the value of using an organized plan in implementing an activity. I was pleased with the response to the activity, and the group's feeling of accomplishment.

As no one in this group wanted to study their own leisure time, and my own observations were that their leisure time was well-spent, I feel quite justified in having made this revision and forgetting about skills for use in leisure activities.

Session D: Handling Drinking Problems

This session was a failure for the group. We did not meet our objectives, although in the next session I very generally reviewed the process we used, and we did not resolve any of the feelings that developed in the session. I have included it here to show why the coach must be aware of harmful behaviors at all times and must confront these when he is aware of them. In the evaluation of this session, I will explain what I should have done and would do if this happened again.

Background: We were over halfway through the course now, and had just completed an evaluation session in which each member determined whether or not the course was helping him meet his needs and achieve his goals. All members chose to remain in the group and had been supported on this by the other group members.

I was reluctant to present this lesson because one of our group members was an alcoholic and was very sensitive to criticism, although he and I had discussed his problem in many, private counseling sessions. This apprehension had me feeling depressed, but I did not identify this, and it added to the tediousness of the session. I now feel that I should have expressed my feelings, and did make a point of doing so for the remainder of the course.

Several weeks before, we had listened to the member from Alcoholics Anonymous, and most recently we had been working in the job skills. I chose to present this lesson at this time, as Mike (the alcoholic) had been in "drinking fights" for the past two week ends, and also because another student in the program, who was not in this group, had been causing problems by coming, intoxicated to school.

Advance Preparation: I did not have either recommended film, but did have a CBC program on alcoholism video-taped. My multi-media kit consisted of SRA fact books on alcoholism, brochures and pamphlets distributed by Alcoholics Anonymous and a center for therapy in Alberta, as well as materials distributed by life insurance companies. I also had situational cards, VTR, and the support of the local crisis centres (there are two organizations in Merritt) and Alcoholics Anonymous.

Stimulus: I used the procedure recommended, substituting the video-tape for the films. In presenting the objective, I could feel the tension increase and Mike excused himself and left the room; I decided to wait, and he soon returned, although he appeared apprehensive and hesitant to participate. I showed the video-tape and we moved on to the discussion.

Evocation: We analyzed the tape's message to determine whether the 5 W-H questions had been satisfactorily covered, and then I used the flip chart, as suggested, in constructing a definition of alcoholism. Everyone participated except Bonny and Mike. I decided to ignore this (another mistake) and suggested that each member think up a question about alcoholism that we could explore during this session. As Lady's husband was an alcoholic, and Pops had been close on several occasions, they suggested several questions each, while the others offered one or two, except for Bonny and Mike who did not raise any questions.

Skill Practice: I knew that Bonny and Mike were using harmful behaviors, but I was uncertain about what to do, and did not want Mike to become angered by confronting him about this, so I did nothing, which was another mistake. I hoped that by getting them involved in the fact-finding process, they would overcome these feelings.

I set up dyads to investigate the multi-media material and put Bonny with Pops, and Mike with Moms. This fact search went well; all teams reported much information, but only Moms and Pops participated for their teams. When we formed triads to interview one another about alcohol and the effects drinking had on our private lives, I placed Virginia, Pops and Mike together and Lady with Moms and Bonny. Moms and Lady interviewed each other first while Bonny observed, but when interviewing and being interviewed herself, Bonny said very little. The third triad, of Constance, Little Sis, and myself was doing well. The threesome of Pops, Virginia and Mike started with Virginia interviewing Pops, but when it was Mike's turn to be interviewed, he left the room.

When I saw this happen, I called the whole group together and Pops decided to find Mike. Soon they returned and joined the group. I began talking to Mike, who started to open up, then stopped talking and remained silent for the remainder of the session. The conversation went like this:

Terry: Mike, I feel that this is becoming too heavy for you ...

Mike: Yeh.

Terry: Can you tell me how you're feeling?

Mike: I don't want to go on.

Moms: Mike, are you feeling that we're too concerned about your drinking? I think that you're doing OK ...

(Now several other members began giving Mike this useless support, and Mike reverted deeper into himself.)

Terry: Hold it. I think we should call it a day.

Before I closed the session, I checked out Bonny's feelings. It turned out that she had been on a couple of "drunks" for the past few days, and felt that I was getting back at her for missing a session on Monday.

We never did complete this lesson, although I reviewed the process in the next session, but decided to drop the topic when Mike began reacting adversely once again. I continued to see Mike in private counseling; he eventually set commitments for himself and began to seriously examine his drinking habits.

Evaluation: This is a good example of how one or two members' harmful behaviors can hinder a group's learning progress. In retrospect, I can see that I should have dealt with Mike's behaviors immediately, when he reacted to the objectives, in the video-tape discussion and in the dyads. I should not have "opted-out" of my responsibility and left it up to the group to challenge Mike's and Bonny's behaviors.

I now have formulated a plan that I would use if this situation should happen again: I would, following Mike's return to the group, set up triad structures once again, and I would have one threesome consisting of Mike, the group member I felt would show the most empathy toward Mike - in this case, Moms - and myself. In the triad, we would once again discuss the topic of alcoholism and ourselves, but I would place less emphasis in getting Mike to talk about his personal situation, and when I felt that Mike was going to opt out again, turn the discussion into one of a more general nature, as, for example, about the behaviors we use when we are drinking. If this went well, I would try to return gradually to the original topic, and in this way try to achieve the objectives of the lesson. As it would be impossible to help a member solve a drinking problem in just one, or even a few sessions, this lesson is more valuable in examining the skills that are useful in helping someone who has a drinking problem.

We could also have gotten into a discussion of helpful and harmful "support behaviors"; that is, to tell someone, who obviously is doing a poor job of handling a problem, that he is doing well is giving him useless, and harmful support, and is encouraging him to continue to handle his problem in this way.

Although this session was detrimental to the group's development, it did not have lasting effects on their progress.

Session E: Surveying Marketable Skills

I have used this lesson several times, and I feel it is one of the most motivating exercises in the course. When presenting it, I can really become enthusiastically involved in it, and the group generally leaves the session feeling much more capable and prepared to "sell themselves" to the employer.

Because of this, I want to examine the process of this lesson closely, and give my thoughts as to why each section contributes to the success of this lesson.

Background: We were in the final stages of the course. Everyone was beginning to think about summer and/or permanent jobs, and we had already been searching the job skills quite a bit, in non-group settings. For example, each student had been working in The S.R.A. Occupational Exploration Kit as part of his academic work, had listened to different resource persons in Friday afternoon sessions describe their jobs (although the topics were different), and had been in one-to-one counseling sessions with me about their future plans. A representative from Manpower was scheduled to come soon and talk individually to each student about their occupational and training goals. The students were motivated to survey their marketable skills.

I prepared the necessary materials and decided to follow, exactly, the format recommended in the Manual.

Stimulus: I have noted that when I write a lesson objective on the flip chart, but do not expand on its content, that no one really understands it. In this lesson, however, the developers provide the means for amplifying this objective into meaningful information; they give the coach an approach to use in motivating the member in surveying his marketable skills so that he begins to think "about jobs which relate to skill training: if jobs consist of skills, then it follows that training in skills prepares one for the job."

The audio-tape serves to reinforce this motivation; by studying Karen's case history, the member begins to realize that he has marketable assets, and that by examining them and trying to use them more effectively, he is going to increase his skills repertoire.

Evocation: This phase serves two purposes: 1) it enables the student to determine what skills are useful in various jobs, and 2) it seeks to have the member look at jobs in terms of skills. This, then, is putting the investigator into a frame of mind that will help him examine his own situation creatively and optimistically.

Objective Enquiry: We spent a full hour on this section, and everyone's job history was recorded on the flip chart. I kept this enquiry humorous (for example, "Pops, you were a mud-raker once, weren't you, in a coal mine?" Pops replied, "That's mucker, you so-and-so ...") and flowing in the style used in brainstorming. We also read out a number of occupational pieces of information from the Dictionary of Occupational Titles, looking for exciting or unusual jobs.

If a well-experienced member is the first one to describe his occupational background, the group members who have had little job experience could be scared off, but by going right back to this member's first jobs as a teenager and young adult, it's easy to demonstrate how experience in one job can lead to a better or more desirable job. In focusing on one or more member's histories in this way, the other members begin to equate skills with jobs, and even the youngest, least experienced member begins to realize that all those short summer jobs, and even baby-sitting, are useful in his job skills development.

Skill Application: This process flows out of the enquiry, and by now the members are anxious to record their own histories on the Analyzing Jobs into Skills form. This form should be presented as a booklet, with "Karen's case" as an introduction and then ample space for the student's record-keeping, followed by a moderately extensive appendix, listing jobs and some of the skills needed in those occupations. It would be a valuable diary that encourages an optimistic approach to job searching. I am pleased with this form's approach, and particularly like the way hobbies and "things I like to do around the house" are brought into skill evaluation.

Evaluation phase: The most valuable aspect to this process is that the member is asked to compare "before and after" outlooks. He is encouraged to say to himself, "Hey, this is a great way to look for jobs", and he more readily accepts his academic and life skills training as being useful for his skill development.

In evaluating this session, I find myself wanting to tell all other coaches that this is the key lesson to the successful acquisition of this course's goal: to equip the Life Skills participant with the behavioral and attitudinal tools that will make him "an effective problem solver and user of opportunity."

BEHAVIORAL SKILL AND ROLE TRAINING APPROACH TO LIFE SKILLS

- Phillip W. Warren

This paper describes some of the preliminary development done in a supplementary approach to Life Skills Training. The approach has not been tested in a rigorous manner and the paper consists mainly of a statement of the theoretical background principles and the desired end state of training methods which we envision at this time. One must not infer that we have in fact successfully operationalized and evaluated the principles and methodologies described here.

Reasons for Developing This Approach to Life Skills

Motivational Problems. In the Life Skills Course, the element of motivation is as important as that of instruction. Any adult needing basic education and life skills will probably need some bolstering of his motivation - his motivation to enrol, to learn, to persevere, and to use what he learns. The Life Skills Course goal of changing the student's approach to life adds the challenge of motivating the student to use life skills outside the classroom and after course completion. The course attempts to lead students gradually to a point where personal use of life skills is the next logical development, facilitated by a great deal of practice under increasingly self-dependent circumstances while on course.

The training methods vary with the nature of the content, which can be classed into three main areas: information, formal Problem Solving Process and behavioral skills. The first two are discussed very briefly with the major emphasis in this paper on training in behavioral skills.

Information. The main problem regarding information is to motivate the student to acquire it; the need for information for immediate purpose increases the intensity of the search. The students actively seek information on specific life problems they are trying to solve. The sources are varied: books, clippings from periodicals, films, filmstrips, audio-tapes, people whom the students interview, etc. The dynamics of the search for and use of information vary with the situation

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and the needs, abilities and preferences of the students. Some of the patterns are: all obtain the same information and discuss it; individuals or subgroups obtain different areas of information and act as "experts" in their particular area during later discussion; when the unforeseen need for some specific item of information arises during discussion, a student may volunteer to obtain it - perhaps by telephone during the session, or by consulting a reference book. Motivation is enhanced by the fact that the information is needed for an immediate purpose, is actively sought by the students, and is obtained from a variety of sources in a variety of ways which help maintain interest.

Problem Solving Process. This, being a logical process, is presented in a logical manner, through use of a prepared audio-tape which explains the process and leads the group through the use of the process in relation to a given problem. A motivational element is introduced by having the group first attempt to solve the problem without being made aware of any process involved. Their untutored effort is recorded and compared with the results they achieve in solving the same problem using the formal method. The motivational question is whether the students will use this logical system in solving their own personal problems. It is hoped that much practice in class reinforced by the requirement that they use the method out of class and report, will lead students to use the method by personal choice.

Behavioral Skills. The course aims to motivate the student to learn and use behavioral skills in class, outside class, and after the course has been completed. Repeated practice and evaluation plus the experience of using the skill in a real life situation, will enhance the likelihood that the student will use it freely when the need and opportunity arises.

Carl Rogers says of his approach to behavioral change in psychotherapy, "... working with a lack of conscious motivation in the individual is more difficult than working with the problem of psychosis. This [conclusion] is ... based ... on our general lack of success in trying to form a facilitative relationship with unmotivated 'normals' of low socio-educational status .... the absence of conscious desire for help presents a greater challenge to the therapist than the presence of psychosis." (Rogers, 1967, p. 184) The Life Skills Course seeks to develop "facilitative relationships" with and between people of low socio-educational status. They often lack awareness of and interest in group processes and do not see using a group approach for learning and helping. The typical incoming Life Skills student is not expecting or interested in Life Skills training; he comes for basic education. The typical attitude might be expressed as, "I don't need life skills. I've made it this far in life without this course. All I need is grade 10 and I'll be set." Unfortunately, most students have bought "The Great

Training Robbery", (Berg, 1970) and see the diploma as the key to jobs. Thus, the typical student has, at best, only the vaguest awareness of the need for skills which are not related to technical job performance. In addition, some believe they are too old, too poor, or too dumb to change their lives. With these attitudes, the problem of "motivation" looms large. Thus, one purpose for this project was to provide techniques to deal with the problems of motivation of adult students of low socio-educational and economic status.

Individual Differences. Closely related to the problems of "motivation" are those generated by the different interests, personal problems, skills, knowledge, and learning styles of students. No one content curriculum or instructional methodology can fit all people. The "problem of match" (Hunt, 1961, pp. 267-288) has been with education for a long time and appropriate methods of individualizing courses are necessary to deal with matching the individual's interest/skill/knowledge/style to the learning environment. One assumption of this approach is that many of the problems of motivation can be overcome when a match can be made between the individual and the learning environment. Since there is a heavy emphasis on the use of the "Learning/Helping Group" in the Life Skills Course, one type of problem arises when a few members of the group are very unskilled in some areas (e.g., contributing, expressing their feelings, etc.) whereas the rest are about equal in their skill level. Methods need to be developed for concentrating on individuals and skills needing the most work so that the group can be more homogeneous in its skill level and thus work effectively as a "Learning/Helping Group."

General Programmatic Benefits. Other reasons for this project related to the above problems but with added benefits were: a. to provide a clearer statement of the theory of learning presupposed in the Life Skills Course and a more explicit attempt to tie training methodology to theory; b. to provide a more precise definition of the skill objectives in behavioral terms; c. to provide a closer integration of the methodology of the Life Skills Coach Training Course with the Life Skills Course; and d. in general, to develop some "trouble shooting" methods for implementing the course and provide greater flexibility in course implementation, e.g., if something does not go as planned then there should be some suggested alternatives.

Theory of An Optimum Training Environment In Behavioral Roles/Skills

This section provides a preliminary description of some of the basic principles which the project seeks to operationalize. The theory set out here is a combination of Kingsbury's (1964) "Learnviron" and

Moore's (Moore, 1964; Moore and Anderson, 1969) "Clarifying Educational Environment".

1. Definition of Some Critical Concepts

It is useful to begin by constructing a model of the critical attributes of a student to see what he brings to the situation and what we are trying to alter when we place him in our training environment.

(a) Plan: (Kingsbury, 1964) A plan is a situation or event created in the student's own cognitive/ideational/value universe; a conceptual construct, mental image, wish, model, goal or ideal (see Miller, Galanter and Pribram, 1960).

(b) Control: (Kingsbury, 1964) Control involves handling the environment or oneself in such a way as to conform to a plan, i.e., the process of making a plan real. The three basic subprocesses in a cycle of control are Start, Change and Stop. To illustrate with an obvious example, if one is interested in driving a car he must have the necessary abilities to start it, to move it from place to place in the desired manner and to stop it at will. The three processes of control can be applied to any of the component abilities of the complex skill of driving a car.

(c) Goal Set: (Kingsbury, 1964) The goal set is a collection of plans whose presence in the real world is desired by a student and whose realization is accompanied by satisfaction, happiness, relaxation, joy, and a sense of accomplishment.

(d) Autotelic Activity: (Moore, 1964, p. 184) "... an activity [is] autotelic if engaging in it is done for its own sake rather than for obtaining rewards or avoiding punishments that have no inherent connection with the activity itself."

(e) Acknowledgement: (Kingsbury, 1964) An acknowledgement is a nonjudgmental recognition of an act, communicated in some way to the student who has acted (Warren, 1969a, 1969b). An acknowledgement is a source of information and must not be confused with the reward or punishment related to goals. For instance, in a programmed text when the student compares his answer with the program's answer and finds it right, that is an acknowledgement, not a reward. Getting the right answer may have nothing to do with the student's goals.

(f) Personal Perspectives: (Moore and Anderson, 1969, pp. 577 - 578) Personal perspective refers to the characteristic attitude or orientation a person has to his world in general and the educational setting in particular. This characteristic orientation changes from time to time for a given person depending both on his preferences and moods and on the situation in which he finds himself at the time.

(1) Agent Perspective. This perspective sees life as a puzzle and emphasizes a sense of active manipulation.

(2) Recipient Perspective. This perspective sees life as a game of chance and emphasizes a sense of receiverhood, i.e., the person is the passive recipient of consequences over which he has virtually no control.

(3) Reciprocator Perspective. Life is viewed as a game of interactive strategy presupposing an agent-recipient perspective. "For example, in playing bridge there is room for meaningful acts of agency and we are sometimes [recipient of] all manner of outrageous happenings .... But the heart of the game .... lies in the possible interrelations between the two opposing teams, each of which must take the other into account. This means that a genuine game of strategy .... does not reduce .... into either the form of a puzzle or the form of a game of chance. This means, also, that a person who is looking at the world from the standpoint of the reciprocal perspective does not see another human being as merely puzzling or unpredictable, but rather he sees him as someone who is capable of looking at him as he looks at the other."

(4) Evaluator Perspective. Life is viewed as an evaluative entity and assessing, evaluating or judging are emphasized. "This perspective presupposes significant others in interaction, i.e., it presupposes entities that behave in terms of the other three perspectives .... The point of view of a judge in a bridge tournament is not that of any player qua player, nor is it some sort of average of consensus of the players' viewpoints. The referee's concern ranges over the whole game -- his viewpoint presupposes that there are players with their reciprocal perspectives."

(g) Ability-Set: (Kingsbury, 1964) The ability-set is the set of all the abilities with which a student controls himself and his environment. This set includes non-teachable reflexes, motor skills, highly sophisticated mental processes, etc. The ability-set contains those abilities, and only those abilities which are involved in controlling the self and world via the realization of planned goals. Obviously this ability-set varies with time. It collapses drastically with fatigue and expands with rest; maturation and learning also expand it. Electroshock, illness, the loss of an arm or an organ, and forgetting will shrink it. The location of the boundary line between the abilities a student does and does not command at a given time is of the utmost importance to the teacher.

(h) Ability Periphery: (Kingsbury, 1964) The ability periphery is that set of abilities which a student does not, at the moment, command but which he could acquire immediately in an appropriate environment. Here we don't have to be too careful about what we mean by "immediately" as long as we think of a reasonably short time. By appropriate environment we can mean a sleeping environment, a learning environment, a hypnotic environment, an environment in which maturation can take place, etc. Naturally, what is in the student's periphery depends upon what is in his ability-set. If typing accurately at a rate of 60 words per minute is in his ability-set, then typing accurately at 61 words per minute is probably in his periphery, but if 20 words per minute is his speed, then 61 words per minute is not in his periphery. And there is no guarantee that if 61 words per minute is in his periphery at 10 a.m. it will still be in his periphery at 11 a.m. -- he may have lost an arm or got tired, etc.

2. Some Characteristics of an Optimum Training Environment

The optimum training environment is a situation which contains a student with an ability-set, a goal-set, and a personal perspective. The interactional possibilities of the situation are characterized as follows:

(a) Perspectives Flexibility (Moore and Anderson, 1969, pp. 585-586) "One environment is more conducive to learning than another if it both permits and facilitates the taking of more perspectives toward whatever is to be learned .... Learning is more rapid and deeper if the learner can approach whatever is to be learned:

(1) from all four of the perspectives rather than from just three, from three rather than from just two, and from two rather than from only one; and

(2) in all combinations of these perspectives -- hence, an environment that permits and facilitates fewer combinations is weaker from a learning standpoint than one that makes provision for more combinations.

".... the attitude the learner brings to the environment each time he enters it [is critical]. Imagine a learner who, one day, is filled with a sense of agency -- he is in no mood, for instance, to [receive from] anything or anybody. An environment will be more powerful from a learning standpoint if it lets him start off with whatever perspective he brings to it, and then allows him to shift at will ...."

"When experts in education maintain that formal schooling is unsuitable for [people], the use of the word 'formal' denotes the typical classroom situation in which most acts of agency are allocated to the teacher, the [evaluator's] role is also assigned primarily to the teacher, and the assumption of the reciprocal perspective in the form of interacting with peer-group members is forbidden through rules which are against note passing and which impose silence. About all that is left to the [students] is to be recipient to the acts of agency of the teacher. This undoubtedly is an unsuitable learning situation for most [people] .... Any environment which tends to confine people to one basic perspective is apt to become boring rather quickly."

(b) Autotelic Flexibility (Moore and Anderson, 1969, pp. 585, 587-588) "One environment is more conducive to learning than another if the activities carried on within it are more autotelic."

For an environment to be autotelic it must frequently protect students against serious consequences so that the goings on within it can be enjoyed for their own sake. It is relatively easy to keep physical risks out of educational environments. It is more difficult to keep psychological and social risks out. If a student feels, while practicing a skill, that he may disgrace himself or look like a fool, or lose his position of respect in the group, or blight his future by failing to perform well, then the whole learning environment is shot through with high psychological and social risks. For a learning environment to be autotelic, it must be cut off from just such risks. ".... the best way to learn really difficult things is to be placed in an environment in which you can try things out, make a fool of yourself, guess outrageously, or play it close to the vest -- all without serious consequences. The autotelic principle does not say that once the difficult task of acquiring a complex .... skill is well underway, it is then not appropriate to test yourself in a wide variety of serious [situations]. It is a common misunderstanding of the notion of an autotelic environment to assume that all activities should be made autotelic. Not so. The whole distinction requires a difference between a time for playfulness and a time for earnest efforts with real risks."

(c) Productive Flexibility. (Moore and Anderson, 1969, pp. 585, 588-589) "One environment is more conducive to learning than another if what is to be learned within it is more productive .... one cultural object (i.e., something that is socially transmissible through learning) is more productive than another cultural object if it has properties which permit the learner either to deduce things about it, granted a partial presentation of it in the first instance, or make probable inferences about it, again assuming only a partial exposure to it .... Of two versions of something to be learned, we should choose the one which is more productive; this frees the learner to reason things out for himself and it also frees him from depending upon authority."

(d) Personalization Potential (Moore and Anderson, 1969, pp. 585, 590-591) "One environment is more conducive to learning than another if it: (1) is more responsive to the learner's activities, and (2) permits and facilitates the learner's taking a more reflexive view of himself as a learner .... The environment must be both (1) responsive to the learner's activities, and (2) helpful in letting him learn to take a reflexive view of himself ...."

(1) Responsiveness: "The notion of a responsive environment is a complex one, but the intuitive idea is straightforward enough. It is the antithesis of an environment that answers a question that was never asked, or, positively stated, it is an environment that encourages the learner first to find a [problem], then find [a solution]. The requirements imposed upon an environment in order to qualify it as 'responsive' are:

(i) It permits the learner to explore freely, thus giving him a chance to discover a problem.

(ii) It informs the learner immediately about the consequences of his actions ....

(iii) It is self-pacing, i.e., events happen within the environment at a rate largely determined by the learner ....

(iv) It permits the learner to make full use of his capacity for discovering relations of various kinds. (No one knows what anyone's full capacity for making discoveries is, but if we hand the learner a solution we certainly know we are not drawing upon his capacity.)

(v) It is so structured that the learner is likely to make a series of inter-connected discoveries about the physical, cultural, [personal], or social world. (What this amounts to depends, of course, upon what kinds of relations are being 'taught' within the environment.)

"The conditions for responsiveness taken together define a situation in which a premium is placed on the making of fresh deductions and inductions, as opposed to having things explained didactically. It encourages the learner to ask questions, and the environment will respond in relevant ways; but these ways may not always be simple or predictable. For a learner to make discoveries, there must be some gaps or discontinuities in his experience that he feels he must bridge. One way such discontinuities can be built into a responsive environment is to make provision for changing the 'rules of the game' without the learner knowing, at first, that they have been changed. However, it will not do to change the rules quixotically -- the new set of rules should build upon the old, displacing them only in part. Such changes allow the learner to discover that something has gone wrong -- old solutions will no longer do -- he must change in order to cope with change. In other words, if you want a learner to make a series of interconnected discoveries, you will have to see to it that he encounters difficulties that are problematic for him. When he reaches a solution, at least part of that solution should be transferable to the solution of the next perplexity .... Though a responsive environment does respond, its response has an integrity of its own. It is incorrect to think of a responsive environment as one which simple yields to whatever the learner wants to do -- there are constraints ...."

(2) Reflexiveness: "One environment is more reflexive than another if it makes it easier for the learner to see himself as a social object .... The acquisition of the social self is an achievement in learning. Unfortunately, some of us

> are underachievers. One reason .... for our ineptitude in fashioning ourselves is that it is hard to see what we are doing -- we lack an appropriate mirror. The reflexiveness which is characteristic of maturity is sometimes so late in coming that we are unable to make major alterations in ourselves .... If an environment is so structured that the learner not only can learn whatever is to be learned, but also can learn about himself *qua* learner, he will be in a better position to undertake whatever task comes next. It facilitates future learning to see our own learning career both retrospectively and prospectively."

(e) Principles of a Skill/Ability Development Environment. (Kingsbury, 1964)

(1) An ability is added to the student's ability-set only by providing him with something to do that requires the use of his related peripheral abilities. All time spent on related non-peripheral abilities is wasted time. The student must not do things he already does well or try to do things he cannot do.

(2) The student should only be taught abilities and skills which are involved in the realization of an already possessed goal. The learning environment must clearly define how his actions are related to his particular goal-set.

(3) The only learnable goals are the sub-goals of an already possessed goal which is being inadequately realized. These sub-goals may themselves become main goals if they achieve independence of their original goal. As an example we could take the boy who desired to marry a girl, but all the girls of the kind he had imagined as wives were marrying rich men. Being rich then becomes a sub-goal, but it may graduate to full goal status. For instance, he may become so involved in making money and enjoying the prestige that goes with it, and in buying things related to his other goals, that even marrying a girl who doesn't need money does not diminish his interest in creating wealth.

(4) The structure of the ability being taught must be well known to someone or something in the learning environment, (e.g., Model, Teacher, Expert, Coach, Fellow Student, Teaching Machine).

(5) Every mistake the student makes must be acknowledged *and* every successful completion must be acknowledged.

(6) The learning environment must be designed so that a mistake has no permanent or long term harmful or negative consequences; e.g., clear up misunderstood terms and concepts, and correct misperformed roles/behaviors for successive progress in the ability domain (see also the conditions of an Autotelic environment).

(7) The learning environment must contain a monitor principle which is capable of deciding when a student is working in or out of his periphery and which decides on this basis what he is to do. Too much success indicates he is working within his ability-set and not learning; too much failure indicates he is working out of his ability periphery and not learning.

3. Conclusion

The specifications for this training environment indicate an optimum environment. Learning will of course occur under less auspicious circumstances. The reason for the specifications becomes evident when used to analyze the failures of any learning environment which needs improving. The basic trouble(s) can be spotted. Why did a psychotherapy session fail? -- the therapist was assuming the presence of goals which were not in fact there, and/or was working in an area which was not real to the patient, etc. Why did a class do so badly? -- the lesson was outside the ability peripheries of the majority of students and/or there was no motivational tie in, etc. An analysis of the training approach proposed in this paper will be one in terms of the principles set out in this section.

Operationalizing the Theory: Training Content and Method

1. Skill Training Methodology

(a) Basic Sequence of Training

The basic sequence of the method can be outlined as follows:

(1) The first step involves the presentation or identification of a behavioral skill/role which is described, demonstrated, discussed, analyzed, modeled, etc. in settings of the whole group and/or in groups of 2-3 people.

(2) The students practice the behavioral skill/role in two and three person groups.

(3) Each student, assisted by the coach and fellow students evaluates the level of performance and concentrates on aspects which need improvement.

(4) Then the behavioral skill/role is tried in a simulated life situation; usually a role play format but it could involve a game format.

(5) Again each student, with help, evaluates the level of performance in the simulated situation and recycles to steps 1 or 2 if some aspects need improvement.

(6) Each student is required to use the behavioral skill/role in a real life situation outside of the training context. This is usually a "take home assignment."

(7) Each student then evaluates the level of performance in real life and describes the situation in which the behavioral skill/role was used. This is usually in the form of a report on the "assignment" presented to the whole group. The evaluation/discussion emphasizes the various settings in which the skill/role is useful and appropriate. Some students may decide to recycle to earlier steps in the sequence or to go on to other behavioral skills/roles and repeat the sequence.

(8) After the students have become familiar with the training sequence some of the discrete steps will be combined where applicable. This is especially true of the evaluation; the intent is to have students continually evaluate their performance and not rely on discrete periods of evaluation.

(b) Description of the Skill Training Method: Instructions to Students

(1) The first step is to recognize and identify the skill or skills to be learned or improved. This can be done in a number of ways, e.g., (a) by studying the group "here and now", watch how people act and behave, how people affect each other, what things help people understand each other better and so on; (b) by watching the TV playbacks (VTR) of yourself and others and noticing what people do and how they do it; does the behavior tell you what they think or feel or do you feel confused when you watch some people?; who has the most skill in communicating with others, and how does he do it? The VTR provides a good way of seeing yourself as others see you; you can stop the VTR and talk about any part.

(2) Once you have found skills that need improvement, you will probably find that they are too complicated to learn all at once and you have to work on parts of these skills. If you want to improve your skill of "communicating with other people" you will have to divide this very complex skill into smaller, simpler parts or sub-skills; some of these are relaxing, eye contact, following what others say verbally and non-verbally, being aware of feelings, expressing your feelings and so on (these sub-skills are described in the hand outs). To use an example from another part of life we use the very complex skill of "deer hunting." In order to train someone to be a skillful hunter he has to learn about the country where he hunts, how to follow trails, how to survive off the land in case he gets lost; he has to learn about the life of deer and their behavior; he has to know about weapons and so on. These areas of knowledge are still very complex and each one needs to be broken into simpler skills. For instance, the skill of shooting a rifle is still very complex and can be broken into the sub-skills of how to hold it steady, how to aim, how to pull the trigger without moving the rifle, how to keep your eyes open when you fire, how to steady your hands and relax, how to achieve good footing and good balance, how to know your target, how to judge distance and wind, how to know when to shoot and so on. And yet, you must know more; you must know where to find the game. No matter how good a shot you are you won't find anything to shoot unless you know how to stalk. Thus, the skills in stalking game need to be learned. One could go on and on with this example. The basic idea is that you must analyze the complex skills into simpler ones in order to improve your skill in general.

It is not possible, usually, to practice a complex skill without breaking it into simpler skills. You learn these simpler skills well and then combine them all again into the complex skill.

(3) In learning a skill it is useful to have some picture of the skill and behavior you want to learn. In the skills we are dealing with in the Life Skills Course, it is useful to have someone skilled in a particular behavior to model the behavior for everyone to copy. You can only get so far with describing the behavior in words; with a model to watch, the words have more meaning. In skill training we will try to follow this method: each person watches the model (for instance on the VTR) and then each student copies the model; if possible this will be recorded for later viewing. Once you have practiced the behavior you watch your VTR (if it is available) and compare your performance with that of the model. This comparison will be hard to do if the two performances are not both recorded. If they are not, you must

use the other group members' observations as a source of feedback on how successful you were in your performance compared to the model.

(4) The purpose of practicing and comparing is to decide what aspects of the skill need the most improvement and emphasis and what aspects of the skill need little work. By doing this analysis of your own performance you put your time only on those things which need improvement and do not waste time practicing things you already do well.

(5) When you practice a skill, you try to come closer to the goal of satisfactory performance of the skill. It helps to have someone who can observe you and tell you when you are doing better and when you are doing worse. The observer is to tell you in effect "That's better, do more of that ...." or, "That's not as good as last time; try to do more ...." This helps you move little by little to the final goal of performing at least as well as the model.

(6) One of the major ways in which we do this training is as follows:

(i) a certain behavior is described in a handout or it comes up in a group discussion but you probably do not know exactly how you would do it. To help you to define the behavior we divide the group into small groups of two or three people. In these small groups each one of you writes out the actions, words, expressions, gestures and so on that you could use to behave like the model. You can discuss this and exchange ideas about how to put the description into action.

(ii) When you interact with people one of your goals is to communicate clearly to the other person what you think and feel. You do this by giving him cues about what you think and feel. These cues are both verbal (words) and non-verbal (e.g., gestures of your hands, expressions on your face, loudness, pitch, speed, inflection of your voice, your posture and the way you stand). In order to understand others and be understood by others we need to define, analyze and practice these verbal and non-verbal cues so that they feel right (natural) for us and also clearly communicate to the other person what we want to say and how we feel. We need to practice all methods of communicating that we can use and not depend only on words or gestures or facial expressions. We need to use all of these and any others available to communicate to others.

We also need to make sure all our cues (verbal and non-verbal) send the same message. For instance, when we say that we are not upset but act upset by frowning and wringing our hands then we just confuse people and they do not know how to "read" us. If we do this often, other people will not want to be around us; it's uncomfortable and others can't relax when they don't know how to take us - we say one thing and act another.

(iii) Once you have a good idea of what to say, how to look and how to act to clearly communicate to another person, then IT IS NECESSARY TO DO IT. It is not enough to say that you will do this and that -- the coach will not believe it until he sees you do it. The real test of whether you know how to do something comes when you try it. Do you really communicate to the other person what you intend or does he get more than one message; is he confused as to what you are trying to tell him?

In order to find out how you come across to the other person you try out your behavior/skill/role in small groups of two or three people. Each person takes turns trying out the behavior while the other(s) judge his performance. These criteria can be used to judge:

- Does the person look and sound natural with the behavior or does he look and sound artificial, forced, tense, unnatural?
- Does the person communicate clearly, forcefully, or does he communicate in an unclear, weak and confused manner?
- Does the person use several ways of communicating (verbal and non-verbal) or does he only use one or very few ways?
- Does the person send the same message with his words and his actions or do they say different things; is he consistent or inconsistent in his verbal and non-verbal communication?

(7) Once you have learned the skill/behavior/role you try it in a life-like situation by role playing in the group. You try the skill in situations like real life but not for real in that the mistakes you make will not hurt you and you can learn from your own and other's mistakes how

to do better. Some examples of the situations which could be used for role playing are, job interviews, husband-wife discussions or arguments, parent-child problems, applying for a loan, handling a difficult sales clerk, handling a policeman, handling a drunken friend, talking to the boss, interviewing an official (e.g., in welfare, C.M.C., Indian Affairs, schools, etc.). Any type of situation can be used for practice before you use the skill in a life situation outside of the group. These trials ("dry runs") will be VTRed and we will watch them to find out how well we did, what went well and what needs more work.

(8) Since the whole purpose of the Life Skills Course is to learn how to handle your problems more skillfully, it is important to try these skills in real life. If you cannot use them in life or if they don't work for you then they are not worth learning. You are just wasting time in the course. Thus, after each skill session is done you try the new skills in your life outside of the course and then, in the next session report to the group what happened: tell about the situation, what you did, what the result was, how you could improve your skill, what other situations it would be useful to try it in and so on.

2. Sequencing the Activities in the Program

The sequence of "presentation, analysis, trial, evaluation, re-analysis, retrial, re-evaluation, etc." used in the skill training method just described serves as a basic organizing pattern throughout the course. The task of sequencing lessons and activities involves presenting material to the students at a rate which they can handle and which follows naturally from their developing interest and awareness. Thus, there can be no rigid detailed preplanned sequencing of given course components. Rather, the available components must be sequenced according to the skills and needs of the students. This requires the coaches to continually diagnose and prescribe in a process similar to Individualized Prescribed Instruction. It is more complex however since the Life Skills Course relies on group process and thus the activities prescribed must result from some diagnosis of development of the group and from diagnosis of individual needs. This creates problems but we offer this course sequence pattern as a starting point.

(a) The initial lessons are fairly light so that the group can come to know each other better and relax with each other, e.g., using an introductions game and group relaxation exercises (Gunther, 1968). During this time, as an introduction to the use of the

VTR, the students play with the equipment to become familiar with it; this takes from three to five sessions.

(b) After this, the group concentrates on more serious skill oriented activities. One way of doing this is to use a series of case studies combined with role-plays involving the most common problems exhibited by the students in the Life Skills Course. The sequence would be one such as follows:

(1) Present the first case study/role play with no demands on the student except to discuss it and try to develop a plan of action. This process would be recorded on videotape.

(2) In the next session the VTR is played back and the students assess their problem solving abilities. If the group is typical, the level of skill will be very low and the coach persists in requiring skill practice as required. The point is to develop a need in the students for the skills of problem solving. At this time, the instruction for the problem solving process is introduced.

(3) Then the second case study/role play is introduced and the process videotaped.

(4) This VTR is played while the coach focuses on the problem solving process and the helpful behaviors needed to implement the process. Then a handout is given which describes some of the most helpful behaviors, e.g., contributing, summarizing, clarifying, seeking contributions. The skill training sequence is used (up through step 7, i.e., the use of the skill in a simulated life situation).

(5) Present the third case study/role play and VTR the process. The students are to keep in mind the problem solving process and the helpful behavior while handling the problem.

(6) This VTR is played and evaluated in terms of both the problem solving process and the helpful behaviors. At this point the coach has each student promise (make a committment) to try the behaviors outside of class and report back the next session.

(7) Each student reports on how he used the behaviors in his life. Those who have nothing to report are re-assigned the same thing. Those who feel some success are assigned a task with a little more difficulty, e.g., to do the behavior

with more skill or to try it in another situation or with different people or to try different behavioral skills.

(8) The students continue to use case studies/role plays to test and use their skills and use the VTR of the process to evaluate and determine their needs for practice. Each student identifies the harmful behavior(s) he is most likely to perform or the helpful behavior(s) he is most likely to omit and promises the group to work on them. He keeps a record of his progress and reports to the group. As each behavior is brought under his control he promises to work on the next behavior until he performs at a satisfactory level.

(c) Once the skill training part of the course, described above, is reasonably complete it is time for the more serious applications of skills to life problems. In this phase of the course there will be a variety of group settings used, from the whole group working on a common problem to each individual working alone and all possible combinations of these (e.g., out of a group of 12, five may work on a problem in common, three may work on another problem in common, and the other four work on their own). There will most likely be a core of lessons common to all students. What this core involves, of course, depends on the common needs and problems of the group and their purpose for taking training. For instance, if the students are in a job training program then the likely common core lessons will revolve around the lessons in the job area of the Life Skills curriculum. The suggested procedure is given here in terms of the instructions to the students.

This is a suggestion as to how you could best use the time remaining on the course to your advantage. Whether or not you get anything out of the Life Skills Course depends on how serious you are in using the help available to get solutions to some of your own problems.

(1) Go over in your mind some of the things in your life which bother you, things that you would like to see an improvement in, the things that could be better. It might help you to list these things for yourself. It is very important that you be honest with yourself here. Some problems were listed at the beginning of the course in the "Life Skills Check List" and you may want to use that as a start.

(2) From this list pick the problems that you can do something about; things that you can change.

(3) From the ones that you can do something about pick out a few problems or problem areas that you want to work on the

rest of the course time. Don't pick too many, maybe just one or two big problems you want to work on.

(4) The job for you, the group and the coach is to use the rest of the time in the course to make a program which will help you with these problems that you select. We want to concentrate on the problems that each one of you is interested in.

Some of you may pick the same general problems and this means that you can work together. Some of you may pick a problem area that no one else has picked and so you will mostly work alone but using the other group members, including the coach, whenever desirable. At times the whole group will be involved in helping each other sort out some problems using the helpful behaviors and the group problem solving method; at other times everyone may be working on their own.

The group problem solving process which was presented to you should be used whenever you feel it is useful. It will be most useful when you are trying to solve a very complex problem. This is true because part of the problem is that you don't know what the problem is, you're confused and unclear about it all. So you need a method to handle this mess. The problem solving process is a systematic method for sorting out a problem and finding out what is involved.

The Life Skills Course has lessons which deal with various problems in family, children, grooming, alcohol and drugs, sex, prejudice, babysitting, single parent families, wills, money problems, landlords, nutrition, family strengths, police, legal aid, community meetings, agencies, job possibilities, employer expectations, application forms and letters of application, resumes, job interviews, quitting a job. More are available and can be made up if there is need.

(5) It is up to you to use the help available to learn skills, facts, and methods to help you to better solve your problems in life.

3. Some General Characteristics of This Approach.

(a) Flexibility of Instructional Methods and Settings:

The Life Skills Course uses flexible student groupings: some activities require the whole group of 12 to 15 people, some use groups of two or three and some are done individually. In order to develop the skill of contributing in a group of 12 to 15 people, for instance, some students may need to gradually approximate this goal since the task overwhelms them. Contributing in a larger group is not in their "ability periphery" but contributing in a three person group is. Once the skills are developed in the small group they must be transferred to the larger group setting.

In addition, the methods and materials used to teach are varied: some involve the students actively and some passively; they use various sensory modalities ("multi-media"); they emphasize the various instructional domains of cognition, affect and action ("psychomotor"); they utilize a variety of feedback methods (Watson, 1969) such as VTR (Bailey and Sowder, 1970; Neilsen, 1964; Salomon and McDonald, 1970) fellow students and coach; "experts" and "authorities" in both "live" and "prerecorded" form such as books, films, tapes and records, tests and other methods of objective evaluation; check lists and rating forms for self evaluation filled out by the person and group members, e.g., "instrumented groups" (Blake and Mouton; Hall, 1970).

We attempt to approach the ideal of using the total community as a learning environment, emphasizing learning which occurs in and out of the training setting; ideally students should use life as a source of learning. This idea, while rather difficult to implement, seems essential before significant change can occur.

In sum, anything and everything is viewed in terms of its learning potential. If something can be used as an information source and learning opportunity then there is an explicit attempt to use it in the course.

(b) Emphasis on Clarity, Structure, Skill Development and Behavior Change:

The emphasis on clarity and structure throughout the program lets everyone know the expected and desired outcomes, the restrictions and the freedoms. To assist in this goal the intentions and procedures of the course are written out as much as possible for the students to read and study. They can see there are no tricks, things are not made up as we go along. For example, in training a behavioral skill, students receive a handout which describes the behavior with examples and explanations of the usefulness of the behavior. This material, when read to the group with further explanations and elaborations, helps clear up misunderstandings and address problems which may arise. We wish to make sure that all students are as clear as possible about what will take place. Since the course emphasizes group process and since the students typically are unfamiliar with the use of groups for learning and behavior change there is a detailed statement of the purpose of "Learning/Helping group," group process, helpful behaviors of group members, etc. (e.g., a "contract" for group process such as Egan, 1970, describes.) This document is available to all group members. When a problem arises about where a particular technique fits into the scheme of things or about the purpose of an exercise the coach can refer to various sections of the document and show students that it was a planned activity with a definite purpose. The students will probably not fully understand the document since no one can really know it until they have experienced it in action. Nevertheless, it exists, specified in considerable detail and referred to throughout the course. The presence of this document provides the students with a sense of continuity and safety, a source of independent authority, so that the authority of the coach is not constantly brought into question.

The method of training stresses behavior and skill, not problems or motives. This may sound contradictory since the Life Skills Course is a program in applied problem solving. We believe however, that a frontal attack on problems tends to fix them more solidly since they are aspects of life which people can not confront. Dealing with problems directly reactivates mechanisms of denial and distortion. Thus problems are approached indirectly as situations for behavioral skill development. We do not dig for problems since the program is not group therapy or confession (Mowrer, 1964; Mainord, 1968). Instead, emphasis on how the person can behave differently can provide him with a wider array of behaviors for a given type of situation or problem. The theme of training is "What did you do?" (Not "Why did you do it?"); "What else can you do which will be better?" "How can you do things differently?"

While in the training group the focus is reflected in the question, "Is what you are doing here and now helping you to become more skilled in solving life's problems? How?" The emphasis on the here and now makes explicit and objective the complex events in group process, increasing students' awareness of interpersonal influence. This helps students learn faster and more effectively from each other. The here and now is all that is common to the whole group. The here and now focus helps people learn to identify cues present in the group and what they mean (the meanings of behavior), learn when the cues from different communication modes are congruent, learn what cues should be used to guide more skillful interpersonal relations, learn what different behaviors mean to different people, learn what impedes or facilitates skill development and clarity in the group and how it is doing this. Also, by focusing on the here and now we avoid bogging down in regrets over the past and worrying about things we cannot change, assigning blame to ourselves or others and other such non-productive actions.

The focus of the helping process can be expressed in *these rules for behavioral skill oriented group help* (see Glasser, 1965; Job Corps Counselling Notes, 1968; Walker; Warren, 1972).

(1) *Work in the present*: The past, especially past failures *is de-emphasized.* The past is useful when it provides information, methods, options, and ideas to work on for the present. Concentrating on past inabilities or searching for past causes for present problems usually only provides people with excuses and justifications for current poor behavior.

(2) *Deal with behavior*: We avoid "reasons" or "justifications", *even if they* are true. We also avoid "motives" and "intentions", except when they relate directly to behavior; i.e., a person may intend one outcome and act in a way which produces an outcome different from or opposite to his intention. This incongruence should be worked on. Behavior can be worked on directly with little or no guessing needed. The issue is what does your behavior tell people about yourself and your "intentions".

(3) *Get a commitment for change from the person*: The person *should decide whether his present behavior* has the desired result. He should ask, "Is this helping me?", "What *can* I do about it?", "What *will* I agree to do about it?" This constitutes an *important* part of the problem solving process. The person must make a commitment and he must understand that meeting it is *his* responsibility. Great care must be made to see that *the* person makes a realistic plan to meet his commitment.

(4) *Take no excuses*: Usually people test others and the group *to see if they will* take excuses for not fulfilling their commitments. If the group accepts excuses they are in effect telling the person, "You are worthless, ineffective, you really can't do it." If they ask the person, "Why didn't you do it?" they are looking for excuses. Instead, when following up on a commitment, the group asks, "When can you do it?" If the group accepts no excuses they let the person know they think he is worthwhile and they are willing to wait for him to fulfill his commitment. If the person continues to have trouble changing his behavior, the group should examine the plan that they made with him. Change it if necessary, but do not give up.

(c) Successive Approximation, Simulation, and Skill Transfer.

The skill training sequence (pp. 91 - 96) and the course sequence (pp. 96 - 99) specify how the program incorporates successive approximation, simulation and transfer. One thing should be made more explicit. The focus on behavior change and skill development requires students to constantly recycle back to the same problem areas using increased skill and sophistication. This recycling provides one of the more meaningful evaluations of progress since students constantly compare their present to their prior skill levels. It is not assumed that because students have done a lesson or gone through an exercise that they know or understand it. They must show that they can use and apply their learnings consistently in a variety of settings. Having a student read a text does not insure that he has learned or understood the content. Using the knowledge in practice or discussion constitutes both a test and a reinforcement of one level of learning. A student who has a good intellectual understanding of a process (i.e., can explain it to someone else) may not be able to apply it effectively without being guided through it a few times. A student able to carry through a process when required to do so with supervision may fail to make use of it when not supervised. The requirement to use a skill in an unsupervised situation and report on his experience may influence him to really learn the skill. A student who has all the facts needed to prove that an attitude or belief is false and undesirable may continue to hold that attitude or belief because these states of mind are more emotional than intellectual. In sum, the learning environment stresses the additive aspects of learning where students are required to appropriately use all previous knowledge and skills in the present situations. These situations can occur any time or place and are not restricted to the training setting. Thus students must report on how they use their learnings in other settings.

To assist in maximum transfer to life extensive use is made of various simulations of life. Role playing constitutes one of the major methods (Allen, 1967; Bach and Wyden, 1968; Bertcher, Gordon, Hages and Mialy, 1970; Bourdon, 1970; Gulbertson, 1957; Klein, 1956, 1959). The role play methodology is very flexible and has the added advantage of requiring initiative on the part of students. Game methodology (Abt 1970; Boocock and Coleman, 1966; The Head Box) can be used to assist learning of some skills. For instance, it is necessary to insure that interpersonal skills learned in the micro-training setting (2 and 3 person groups) transfer to the total group. Also, students must learn additional skills in larger groups since some skills, such as observing the group process and commenting on it, getting a consensus from the group, and gatekeeping to see that all who wish to contribute are allowed to do so, can only be learned in larger groups although some aspects of the behaviors may be learned in the micro-setting. In larger groups there exist more complexities of possible interaction styles, relations and sequences. Since time does not stretch, the number of interactions for each person must decrease as the group size increases or else either everyone is talking at once or a few people are dominating the group. The number of possible relationships increases factorially with the group size. In order to learn these group skills, however, the group should not be too serious, attempting to deal with threatening or embarrassing material. To reduce the social and psychological risks of learning, group games can be introduced so that these complex skills can be learned. When things are too serious, learning efficiency is reduced. The focus needs to be on the skills and not on the problem; attempting to deal with problems that are too important may in fact impede the learning of the skills.

Analysis of the Methodology in Terms of the Optimum Training Environment

The time has come to analyze the approach described here to see how close it comes to the theoretical optimum. Of course, there is many a slip between the description and the implementation of a method and we again emphasize that we are in practice quite far from the optimum. However, it will be useful to at least assess the statement of the method in terms of the ideal.

Table 1 presents my judgments of the way the training methodology operationalizes the theory. The "x's" indicate the areas of match between theory and method. The letter-number symbols on the left hand side refer to the steps of the methods as outlined in the paper.

The theoretical principles most adequately operationalized are those of "Perspective Flexibility", "Productive Flexibility" and "Reflexiveness" since the whole Life Skills Course seeks to maximize these aspects of the students. Those principles least adequately operationalized deal with "Responsiveness". There is more direction in the training method than specified in the theory although the direction seeks to "goad" students to explore at their own pace to discover interconnected relationships. They are not allowed to not explore and this can produce a contradiction between the theoretical ideal of "Autotelic and Perspectives Flexibility" and the training method. That is, students are not in training to enjoy themselves but to become more skillful. The problems involved in implementing "Responsiveness" derive most from the use of the "Learning/Helping Group".

	THEORY OF OPTIMUM TRAINING ENVIRONMENT:	Perspectives	Autotelic	Productive	Responsiveness 1. Free exploring	2. Immed. Feedback	3. Self pacing	4. Discover	5. Inter-connections	Reflexiveness	Skill Development 1. Use periphery	2. Ability Goal Related	3. New Goals are Sub-goals	4. Skill model	5. Feedback	6. Mistakes not harmful	7. Monitor
TRAINING METHOD: SKILL TRAINING METHOD DESCRIPTION	b. (1)	STUDENTS REQUIRED TO TAKE ALL PERSPECTIVES →		GREAT DEAL OF PRODUCTIVITY REQUIRED: ROLE PLAY, PROBLEM SOLVING →				x	x	x		x					
	b. (2)							x	x		x	x					
	b. (3)					x		x	x					x	x		x
	b. (4)									x	x						
	b. (5)					x									x		x
	b. (6) (i)										x			x			
	b. (6) (ii)									x		x					
	b. (6) (iii)				x					x	x	x					x
	b. (7)		x									x	x			x	
	b. (8)		x							x			x				
SEQUENCING PROGRAM	a.,		x					x			x	x				x	
	b. (1)		x			x					x						
	b. (2)		x									x		x	x		x
	b. (4)		x			x					x				x		x
	b. (5)		x						x								
	b. (6)		x			x							x		x		
	b. (7)		x							x	x						
	b. (8)		x							x	x	x	x		x		
	c. (1)		x		x					x			x				
	c. (2)		x		x						x						
	c. (3)		x		x						x						
	c. (4)		x		x		x	x					x				
	c. (5)		x		x												
GENERAL CHARACTERISTICS	Groupings	x	x		x		x				x					x	
	Materials	x		x		x				x				x	x		x
	Use Community	x	x	x	x		x	x	x	x		x	x				
	Clarity/Structure		x	x						x	x	x		x			
	Skill Emphasis	x	x	x		x		x	x	x	x	x	x			x	
	Behav. Change 1. Present		x					x	x								
	2. Behavior									x	x						
	3. Commitment	x		x						x	x	x	x				
	4. Excuses									x	x	x	x		x		
	Recycle to Problems	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
	Cumulative Learning	x	x	x	x			x	x	x	x	x		x	x	x	x
	Role Play	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
	Games	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x

Table 1: Match Between Training Method and Theory

The theory/methodology coordinating group process and individual development is weak and unclear and needs work.

The methodology is also weak in the area of diagnosis of needs and goals. This process requires considerable sensitivity from the coach in addition to the constant "goad" on the students to assess their needs and goals and evaluate how the training is meeting them.

Another weak area is the role of the coach. The methodology should specify more explicitly how the coach behaves, when to intervene and when to leave students on their own. In terms of training emphasis the most adequate methods are those discussed under the heading, "Successive Approximation, Simulation and Skill Transfer" i.e., the constant recycling to the same problem areas at a more skillful level, the emphasis on cumulative learning, and the use of case study/role play and games.

This brief analysis serves as a beginning for the redevelopment of the theory and method. Implementing the method helps in this process since, as usual, things are easier said than done. Inadequacies are nowhere more exposed than when the method is implemented.

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THE STUDY OF PROBLEM SOLVING IN THE LIFE SKILLS COURSE

- R. Himsl

Students in the Life Skills Course alternate two processes, abstraction and application, in learning a new problem solving skill, or in developing one they already own. First, they abstract or remove the problem solving skill from its life setting. This enables the student to name the skill, to analyze it, to identify its meaning to him, and it permits the student to practice the skill in a safe setting. By abstracting the skill, the student can develop a proficiency in use of the skill in the protected confines of the Life Skills Learning Group; however, learning requires the student to employ the second of these learning processes, that of application. He applies or uses the skill which he studied in the abstract. The essential learning model requires the alternation of these two processes: abstraction and application. The process of abstraction yields understanding and modification; the process of application yields changed behavior. Abstraction permits the study of the behavior; application proves its learning. Abstraction permits an individual to teach the skill to another person; the learner tests his accomplishment in application. A Life Skills lesson employs both these processes.

Problem Solving: an Abstraction.

At its most abstract, this discussion concerns itself with a broad array of behaviors subsumed, or included in the large classification identified by the term, problem solving behaviors. This term names no actual behavior, and takes on meaning only if described in more behavioral terms. Movement towards the more concrete, towards the behavioral, adds some definition. The Life Skills Course has adopted a problem solving model with five stages in the problem solving process: recognition of a problem situation, definition of a problem, choosing an alternative solution, implementation of an alternative, and evaluation of the result. Though writing the five major steps in problem solving in this manner suggests a sequence of actions, each one following nicely upon the other as it reaches its conclusion, observation of the problem solving process in action indicates that people do not follow such a fixed sequence. Often, they move all across the five categories just listed: at one time, they leap to a tentative solution, in effect, an hypothesis, and then reject it because, they find on examination, it fails to generate the desired results; again, people often look for alternative solutions before giving adequate definition to the problem; at another time, the problem solver moves back and forth many times across these five categories of behaviors searching for some resolution of the difficulty which the problem causes him.

A Problem Solving Process

While these major steps in problem solving - recognition of a problem, definition of a problem, choosing an alternative solution, implementation of an alternative, and evaluation of the result - provide some definition to the problem solving process, their level of abstraction makes them of little value as guides to action. Few people gain anything from the instruction, "define your problem!" It sounds more like an admonition than a guide to action, and they still wonder what to do. In other words, these five categories of problem solving behaviors are still too abstract to serve as a guide to action.

In the Life Skills Course, students learn another classification of behaviors which possess stronger behavioral characteristics. An individual may express his recognition of a problem situation for example, by talking about his unease. The Life Skills Course helps him nail down this uneasiness by showing him how to prepare a description of the problem situation answering the questions who, what, when, where, why and how. That of course formalizes the awareness, makes it conscious, and permits the individual to examine the situation. Such a definition possesses strong behavioral characteristics, and a seemingly low level of abstraction. One person might say to another, "You feel you have a problem. Try writing a description of it in which you answer the question, 'who, what, ...'" and feel that the person given the instruction could do it. Of course, the learner must practice the skills of asking those questions of himself in a meaningful way, and then framing helpful answers to them. In this particular example then, we can trace a sequence from the most abstract classification, Problem Solving Behaviors, to one main sub-process, recognition of a problem situation, through the general description of writing a description of a problem answering the questions, who, what ..., down to the very skill of asking those questions and framing the answers. This latter stage describes the behavior so precisely, that the only remaining requirement is the actual practice by the student.

In introducing the skill of describing the problem situation to the students, the course presents the students with a simple mnemonic describing the skill: the 5W-H system. The students deliberately practise asking these questions who, what, where, when, why and how, of themselves as they concern the picture of a rescue of a boy who has fallen into a shaft. The students hypothesize answers to the questions under the guidance of the coach and so frame a tentative description of the situation. After this demonstration of the skill, the students use the same skill to describe the situation that brings them to take Life Skills training.

To define a problem using the Life Skills system of problem solving, the student gathers more facts relevant to his problem situation, (see Table 1). To do this, he asks many questions about the situation described in the first part of the process, but avoids, for the moment asking the especially significant question, "why." He answers as many of these questions as he can, thereby filling out his description. Furthermore, he identifies and marks in some way, those four or five questions he considers especially meaningful, and he changes them to a form designed to generate

TABLE 1

A SUMMARY OF A PROBLEM SOLVING PROCESS[1]

1. Recognize the problem situation

Write a brief description in which you answer the questions, who? when? what? where? why? how?

2. Define the problem

First: Collect more facts. Ask more questions about your description. Ask as many questions as you can, but do not ask questions beginning with why, could or might.

Second: Ask questions beginning, "In what ways might ...?"

Third: Test each "In what ways might ...?" question with "why?"

Fourth: Choose the best "In what ways might ...?" question as your definition of the problem.

3. Choose a solution

First: Find possible solutions.

Second: Find criteria.

Third: Choose a solution.

Fourth: Predict results.

4. Implement a solution

First: Plan how to carry out the solution.

Second: Carry out the plan.

5. Evaluate the result

Compare the result of the action with what you predicted for the results.

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[1] Adapted from Parnes, 1967.

solutions. He changes them to a form beginning with the words, "In what ways might ...?". Suppose for example, a person has asked himself this question concerning a certain problem, "How much money do I need to go to Europe?". He rephrases the question into the "In what ways ..." form to generate ideas. He might say, "In what ways might I save money to go to Europe?", or, "In what ways might I get to go to Europe?". Such a phrasing of the question suggests many possible courses of action, not all equally acceptable to him; however, he can easily rid himself of the unwanted ideas. The rephrasing of the question has also changed the emphasis in what emerges finally as a definition of the problem. The original question, "How much money do I need to go to Europe?", limited the possible solutions to one only, namely the collection of enough money to pay the fare. The "In what ways might ..." question opens the possibility of additional solutions: he could work his passage over; he could work while in Europe; he might join the Armed Forces and try for a posting in Europe; he might study in Europe; he might even choose to solve only part of his problem by going to an ocean port to see what opportunities appeared when he got there; he might borrow the money for such a trip; of course, he might find the cost of a direct flight and save the money for the trip.

If he finds this form of the question satisfactory as a source of ideas, he tests it with the question "why" to determine whether it adequately defines his problem. He may say to himself, "Why go to Europe?". And he answers, "For a dream holiday!". The careful problem solver pursues himself with "why"; he continues, "But why have your dream holiday in Europe?". As he answers his own question, he finds himself saying, "My father served in the Canadian Army during the war, and spoke of the beauty of Belgium and Holland, and has always encouraged me to see those places. I'm young, and I want to go." Following that line of searching, it seems that the problem solver has a clear reason for wanting to go. If he had answered the question, "But why have your dream holiday in Europe?" , by saying, "I guess I have no particular reasons.", he might well have searched for alternative places which might have satisfied the need for a dream holiday, and which might not have cost him so much. The persistent use of why connected with elements from "in what ways might" question provides an exacting means of searching for the assumptions which often hide in tentative problem definitions. The exposure of these assumptions of course, often leads to problem redefinition.

The problem solving system used in the Life Skills Course employs two criteria then, to test the adequacy of a problem definition: the form of the definition must generate possible solutions and it must rest on assumptions acceptable to the problem solver. He identifies these by testing his statement of the definition with the question, "Why?". The productive use of this question often requires much training and practice supported by feedback before the student can apply it to his own problems.

When the Life Skills student considers that his definition adequately meets these two criteria, he uses it to produce tentative solutions. He may get these in any number of ways: brainstorming, talking to others, reading, thinking, describing his problem to other people, asking for suggestions from other people, browsing through related literature, watching movies, or examining the relevant facts. During this part of the problem-solving process, the student practices the skill of deferring judgment on his ideas. That means that the life skills student avoids censuring or judging any idea during the time in which he produces ideas, because premature censure tends to reduce the flow of new ideas. After he has identified a number of possible ideas, he simply chooses the idea which looks most useful to him. If however, he finds several which look likely to him, he may identify criteria for choosing the most useful idea and rate each alternative on each of the criteria. Certainly, one of the criteria he applies refers to the desirability of the outcome. Indeed, the student actually predicts the outcomes of his proposed solution, and judges the desirability of the proposed solution on that basis.

Using his criteria, he selects the most desirable alternative. He then plans the implementation of what has now become his solution. This planning may require elaborate and detailed arrangements, or it may require no more than the making of a choice. Whatever the requirement, the Life Skills student implements his plan.

The final step in the problem solving process requires the student to evaluate the outcome. In the evaluation, he may consider his satisfaction with the outcome, compare the results with his predictions, or evaluate the effectiveness and efficiency with which he solved his problem, he may identify new problems which arise from his actions, or modify his behavior on the basis of his experience. The very effective student also evaluates the effectiveness with which he used the problem solving process.

Helpful as the system and its procedures might appear, the number of behaviors it identifies remains too limited for its effective use by many people. In order to support the powerful behaviors identified in the preceding description, the Life Skills Course contains practice in many other problem solving behaviors.

Problem Solving Behaviors in the Life Skills Course

In the Life Skills Course the students use a wide range of behaviors which assist effective problem solving. Some problem solving behaviors concern interactions with other people; students ask questions for information and clarification; they paraphrase and summarize; they interpret and check meanings; they give and receive feedback; they listen to others; they practice conventions perhaps unfamiliar to them, such as parliamentary procedures and debates.

When their problems concern things and events they measure, compare, rank order, predict, sequence, tabulate, and categorize. To bring some order into events, or establish relationships among things, students use the heuristical behaviors of definition, analogy, generalizing, decomposing and recombining.

When the students deal with ideas they defer judgment, evaluate, force relationships to produce new ideas, rate, and plan. They use procedures of heuristic to study ideas, and they fantasize to generate new ideas. They practice the use of two dimensional tables. When they prepare plans, they predict the consequences of their plans, in effect, they imagine the problem solved and then place their own values on the presumed consequences.

They use data gathering procedures: they interview other people; they read; they watch films; they "go and see" by taking tours; they record data; they seek and examine assumptions; they use criteria to assist in making decisions; and they evaluate the consequences of their action. Such evaluation includes comparison of the result with their predictions, identification of the need to modify behaviors, development of plans to carry out modifications, and valuation of the consequences.

The lessons provide specification of the manner in which the student practices and uses each skill. In learning to defer judgment for example, the students use the familiar brainstorming technique to produce ideas; or they defer judgment through fantasy, allowing their minds to roam freely; or they tell other students, "Do not cut me off. Wait till I have finished." In using the skills of clarification, they paraphrase what they think another person says, "You seem to say that ... Are you saying? ... Tell me if I have you right when I say ..." and the original speaker checks this interpretation against his intent. As a final example, in learning the skill of defining a problem, the students use a technique which restructures the tentative definition of the problem into a form designed to generate solutions, and then they test this form of the definition with the question "why?" This test helps in the examination of assumptions.

Summary

The Life Skills Course provides its students with a problem solving system to which they can refer for direction in meeting personal problems in their life after training. The course also provides them with skill training in an array of powerful problem solving behaviors which supplement those specified in the problem solving system.

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TOWARDS CLARITY IN DEFINING PROBLEM SOLVING AND HUMAN RELATIONS SKILLS

- Mary Jean Martin

Introduction

This paper examines the problem of defining the skills of "problem solving" and "human relations". It explores the problem from different angles and discusses various definitions in the context of the Life Skills course.

The Definition of Problem Solving Appears to be a Problem

Because the term "problem solving" sounds familiar, people assume that they or others know its precise meaning. A search of the literature, however, reveals that many writers assume their own meaning, only vaguely relating their definition to the meaning given to "problem solving" by others. (See the appendix at the end of this essay for examples.)

Ray (1955) reports that even the problems used in laboratory studies of problem solving varied so much he found it impossible to organize them intelligibly. Kleinmuntz (1966), as editor of the book, Problem Solving: Research, Method and Theory, reports various points of view attempting to draw agreement from the seemingly differing opinions. Green (1966), points out the emphasis placed on process by those interested in information processing and computer programming and contrasts their views to the Stimulus-Response theorists who "disavow interest in process, preferring either 'mediating responses' or nothing at all intervening between stimulus and response." Gestalt psychologists insist the wholeness of the experience is critical to any explanation. The field of creativity opens up yet other controversies attempting to relate divergent and convergent thinking to other elements of problem solving.

Researchers who use algebra problems to study problem solving behaviors say that generalizations or rules from the process can be transferred to real life situations, but researchers involved in the social sciences find the conclusions from these isolated studies of little help in explaining or predicting what Green (1966) refers to as the "ubiquitous kind of human behavior--problem solving". Research results in the social sciences lack the precision that the more rigorous behaviorists seek. Thus little agreement and much argument exists when researchers attempt to explain their findings to each other.

From the literature one concludes that scientists have interest in the "problem" of problem solving, but definitive results still elude them. Some writers caution against closing the arguments too soon, lest narrow definitions limit the search for a comprehensive explanation. Others seek clarity in the definition of terms to guide their studies. Readers searching for information about problem solving, bringing their own ideas about the definition of the term with them, and expecting to find evidence to support their understanding, often fail to find the information they seek or become confused when they cannot sort out discrepancies.

The Field of Human Relations Appears Related to the Field of Problem Solving

While researchers have worked to isolate S-R bonds and to simulate computer programs to sort out the complexities of problem solving and thereby limit the variables for study of the complex phenomenon, it appears that another way of looking at the problem may have grown up independently, maybe in defiance of this approach: social scientists, trying to sort out the complexities of how people resolve conflicts and interact to work as teams, took the problems of interpersonal relations or human relationships into the laboratory. The literature describing this approach has accumulated and has received an identity of its own. But does the field of Human Relations differ significantly from the field of Problem Solving? Some of the results from the separate studies appear to overlap; behavioral descriptions of the skills sometimes use similar vocabulary; stated purposes and objectives talk of solving or resolving problems; different labels appear to identify identical behaviors. Has this separate approach uncovered factors that could clarify the confusion surrounding the field of Problem Solving?

Some Problems in Talking About Problem Solving

In his *Problem Solving Notebook*, Straus (1969), states, "...much valuable material has been locked up under different labels and often couched in complicated jargon." He states that one of the critical problems has been deciding what *level of abstraction* to use when talking about problem solving. Straus decided to use words like *define* and *identify* in his taxonomy. Many writers appear to have decided on this level of abstraction, at least for outlining the steps they use to explain "logically" what in reality, they explain, occurs in a less logical fashion. [Dewey (1949), Hodnett (1955), Kaplan (1964).] But using this level of abstraction leads to problems: people recognize the words as familiar and, assuming that they understand them, try to apply them without translating them to a less abstract level; for example, they try to *define* a problem, or *identify* alternatives. What do we look for when we look for someone *defining a problem*? No behaviors precisely match these words; what people actually do from one time to another in defining a problem differs even though the same term describes the *purpose* of their behavior.

In defining a problem, for example, one person states a question about what he wants to achieve, another names the obstacles that interfere with his progress toward a goal, another summarizes in one sentence what bothers him, or as students learn in the Life Skills Course, a person words a question beginning with the words, "In what ways might...?"; this provides a search device for generating ideas about the problem as well as defining it, thus combining two strategies with one operation. Words like define and identify are abstractions of processes, labels for strategies or purposes, or explanations of a set of behaviors, and are not descriptions or prescriptions for action.

Even though we recognize differences between abstract and operational definitions, between the labels and the actual behaviors, we have yet another problem when we seek to match behavioral evidence with theoretical explanations. We know we can't see someone define a problem, but when we see someone ask a question starting with the words, "In what ways...?" can we always assume he is defining a problem? How do we know when he is seeking alternative solutions instead? Is he defining a problem if he doesn't understand the relationship between the concrete and abstract? Is he merely parroting a response he knows the observer seeks? If he can verbalize the connection, what guarantee do we have that he is motivated to use the process when he is not under observation?

A New Way to Look at the Problem

At least two problems emerge in attempting to define or describe problem solving skills as distinct from human relations skills: first, the problem of isolating the variables that influence human problem solving behaviors without destroying the very essence of the behaviors in the process; and secondly, the problem of deciding the level of abstraction that best describes behavior in operational terms but allows us to delineate the theoretical concepts so we can explain the purpose of the behaviors. This diagnosis raises these questions: What if "problem solving" and "human relations" are not really different phenomenon, but only different explanations of the same behaviors? What if the behaviors differ only in their purpose and can only be explained in the context of this purpose? What if the behaviors and the explanations overlap in such a way that at least part of each can be better understood in the context of the other? Could an understanding of the differences lead to a better understanding of the similarities? If comparison shows the two fields to be completely isolated, could better labeling and definition of terms result in better understanding and greater clarity?

Keeping the above problems in mind, what would happen if descriptors from research in the field of human relations training were used to provide new vocabulary to compare levels of abstraction and if the amount of "humanness" were varied in the types of problems to be solved? Would this perspective help clarify areas which overlap and identify independent areas?

Working from this perspective, Figures 1 and 2 illustrate the assumption that "problem solving" and "human relations" skills deal with entirely different material. They assume that "problem solving" skills exist to deal with *"inanimate" things* and "human relations" skills exist to deal with *interpersonal relationships*. Having differentiated *people* and *things*, and *assuming a problem with each* exists, labels are given to the processes that suggest how the problem is *solved*: they suggest the terms *solve*, *create*, *find way out*, *supply an answer* to deal with problems involving *things*, and the terms *clear up*, *settle* or *resolve* to deal with problems involving *people*.

For example, suppose the *things* that create a problem are pieces of a picture puzzle: to *solve* the *problem*, someone must fit the pieces together; there is a *pre-determined* way that is right. The "problem solver" looks for ways to *find* the answer. Or, supposing the things are pieces of paper, randomly cut *and* not pre-matched. The problem solver might *create* a pattern or *find* a pleasant arrangement for the pieces. Since *things* are inanimate, the problem solver does the manipulating: he *looks at*, *handles*, *twists*, and *turns the object around*; he *arranges*, *rearranges*; he *describes the problem*, *defines it*, *looks for alternatives*, *plans*, *evaluates*, *replans*, *redefines*, and at some point in the process *finds* the answer. He controls the manipulations and controls or directs the problem solving procedure; he acts on the problem and he controls the changes.

On the other hand, the "problem solver" who sets out to *solve* a problem with *other people* performs some of the same acts, but finds *added* variables: he finds he is not the only manipulator; he is not the only one who seeks to solve the problem; he finds the problem changing as interactions take place; having solved one problem, he may find another in its place. To solve the problem he must *interact* and *compromise*; he must *listen to*, *speak to*, *explain*, *define*, *seek clarity* and *look for agreement* to find what the other persons seek to do; he must *consider opinions and feelings*, some changing frequently, some remaining rigid even when evidence suggests other reactions to him; he must *convince*, *persuade*, *dissuade*, and *allow others to influence him*; he must work in a fluid, dynamic setting. Thus to *solve* or *find an answer* for all time may not be possible. Terms like *resolve*, *clear up*, *settle*, may better describe the phenomenon.

Figure 3 suggests that the two phenomena described in Figures 1 and 2 are opposite ends of the same continuum. At the midpoint, it plots persons *asking each other questions* (dealing with other people) in order to *complete a task* (solve a problem with things). The direction or goal of the "problem solver" may change as the focus changes from the inanimate qualities of the task to the animate qualities of the other "problem solvers". An observer might think of the behaviors as moving back and forth along the continuum, describing them as *task oriented* or *group oriented* at various times, depending on their concentration on the task itself or on the problems arising from the interaction.

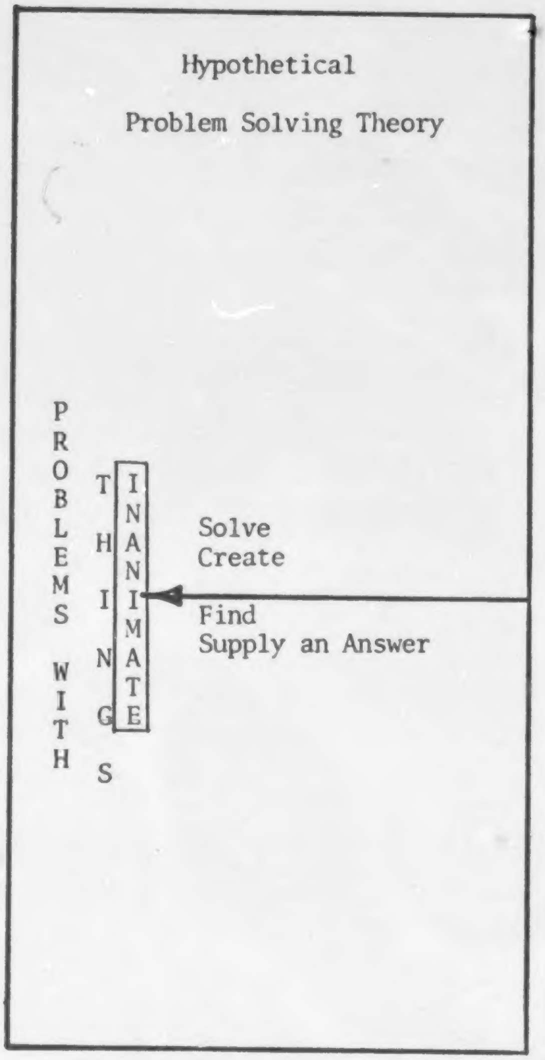

Hypothetical
Problem Solving Theory
PROBLEMS WITH
THINGS
INANIMATE
Solve
Create
Find
Supply an Answer

Figure 1

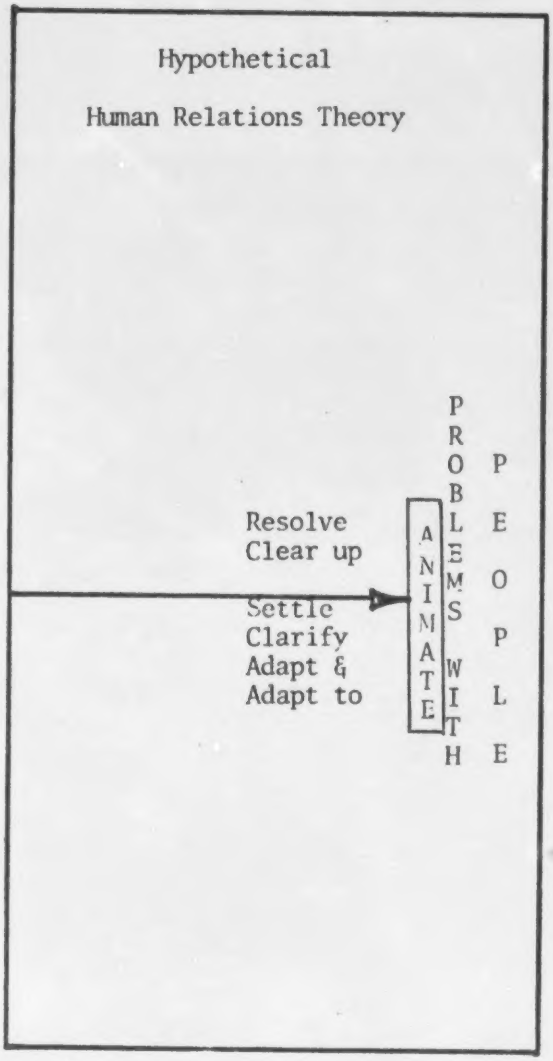

Hypothetical
Human Relations Theory
Resolve
Clear up
Settle
Clarify
Adapt &
Adapt to
ANIMATE
PROBLEMS WITH
PEOPLE

Figure 2

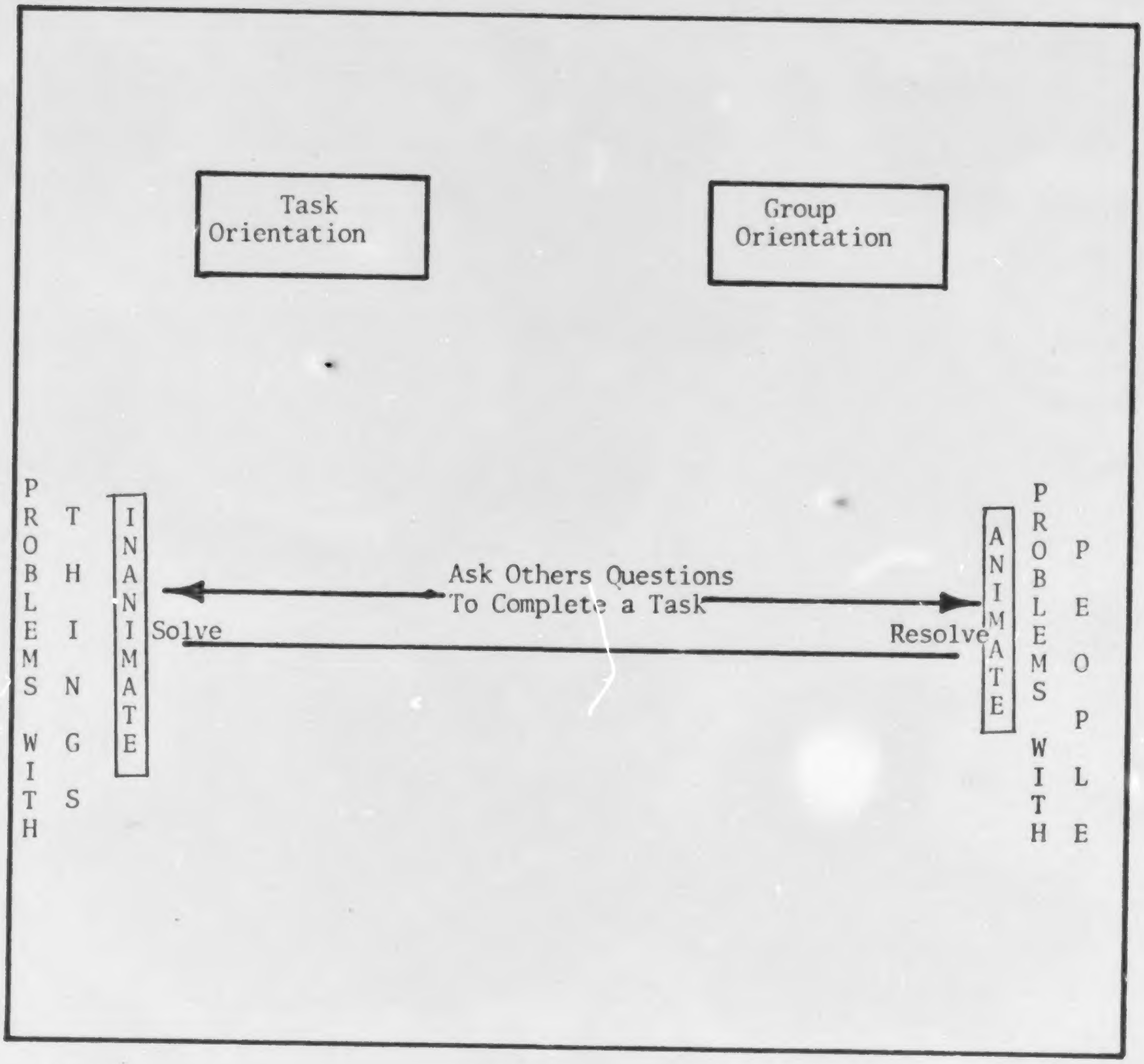

Task Orientation
Group Orientation
PROBLEMS WITH
THINGS
INANIMATE
Ask Others Questions To Complete a Task
Solve
Resolve
ANIMATE
PROBLEMS WITH
PEOPLE

Figure 3

Figure 4 identifies another continuum, this time pictured as vertical, to look at the problem of sorting out theoretical and operational definitions. It assumes that the two might be shown on a continuum from abstract to concrete. It assumes that at the most concrete end the input is sensory and can be measured and explained by isolating S-R bonds, and at the most abstract end the input is theoretical and can be explained by postulating mediating processes. At a more practical level for training purposes, Figure 5 cuts into the vertical continuum at the level of Concepts and Behaviors. It suggests that if we were to take a term like define from problem solving theory and plot it on the continuum it would appear near the top, being an abstract form of its operational counterpart and therefore a concept. If we were to plot an operational definition of define, such as asking a question beginning with "In what ways might...", we would do so near the lower end of the continuum. Figure 6 continues the same idea, using terms from Human Relations Theory. It plots the abstract term, use attending behaviors towards the upper end and the operational counterparts, use eye contact, lean towards the other person, and paraphrase what the other says, toward the lower end.

These diagrams, oversimplified to illustrate two variables important to the understanding of a definition of complex phenomena, provide a framework for looking at "problem solving" and "human relations" behaviors.

Figure 7 combines both the horizontal and the vertical axes and plots comparable terms from the two theories, observing from Problem Solving Theory and attending from Human Relations Theory. While the only behavior that can be observed, in the straight sense of behavioral evidence, is "Person A looks at 'X', ('X' in this case either a thing or another person); as we move up the abstraction scale, the behavior is interpreted in the languages of the two theories: look at item or observe the variables in problem solving terms and use eye contact or use attending behaviors in human relations terms. At an abstract concept level, at the top of the chart, both might be classified as collecting facts to define the problem.

Problems related to life situations rarely deal with either end of the continuum. Rather, they usually involve people and things. Take the problem of a husband and wife wishing to establish a family budget which they hope to balance at the end of a month. They can list items and manipulate figures in a book, but they must also consult with or direct each other; they must accept apologies or demand accountability when figures fail to tally. If we were to observe their exact behaviors we might describe them as writing, talking, asking questions, shouting or whispering under their breaths. On a more abstract level, higher on the vertical axis on the chart, they might be described as defining the problem, gathering facts or as attending to and interacting with each other. These descriptions move along the vertical axis. On the horizontal axis, we might say, as Thelen does, "the fundamental problem of the group" [in this case the husband and wife] "is to satisfy simultaneously both sides of its nature, to meet individual needs and to solve problems (change the environment)".

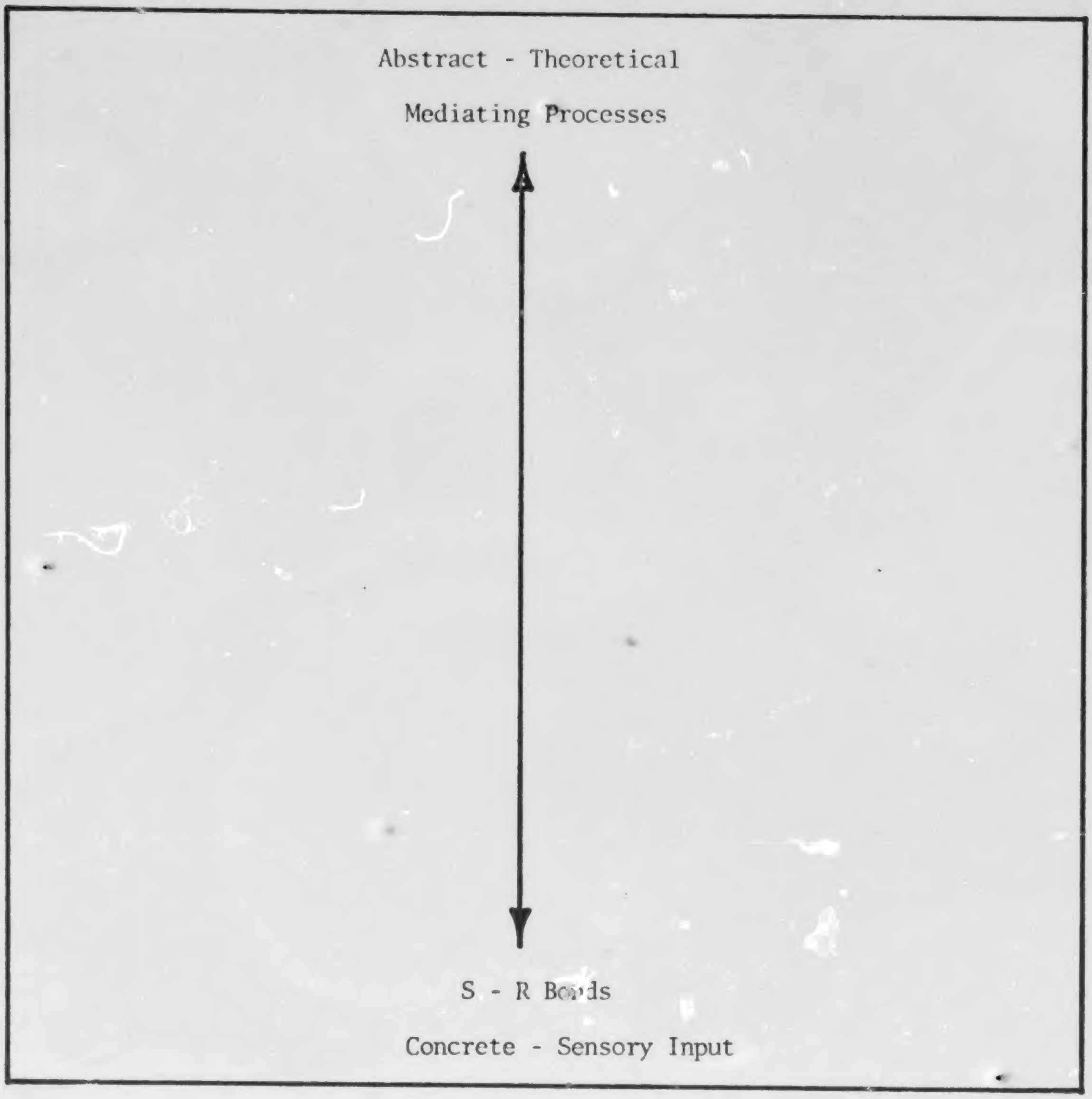

Abstract - Theoretical
Mediating Processes
S - R Bonds
Concrete - Sensory Input

Figure 4

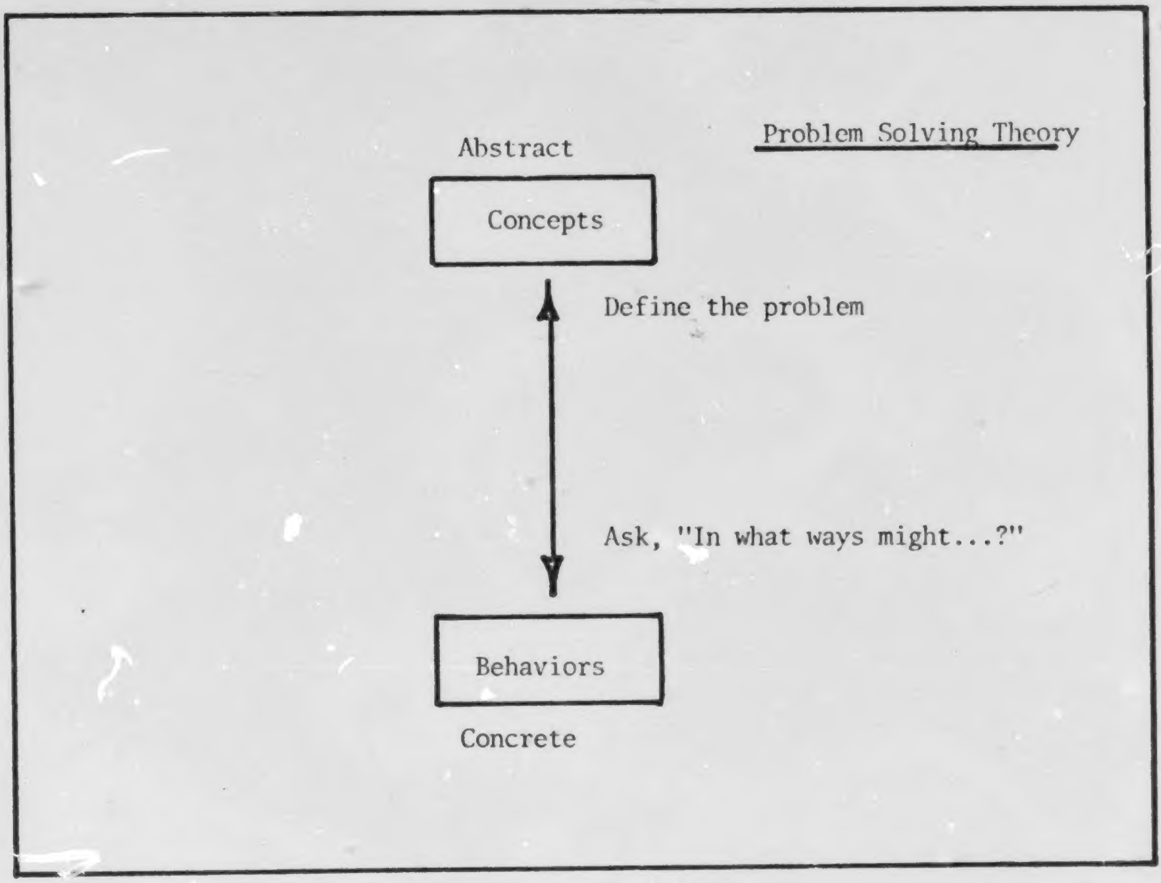

Problem Solving Theory
Abstract
Concepts
Define the problem
Ask, "In what ways might...?"
Behaviors
Concrete

Figure 5

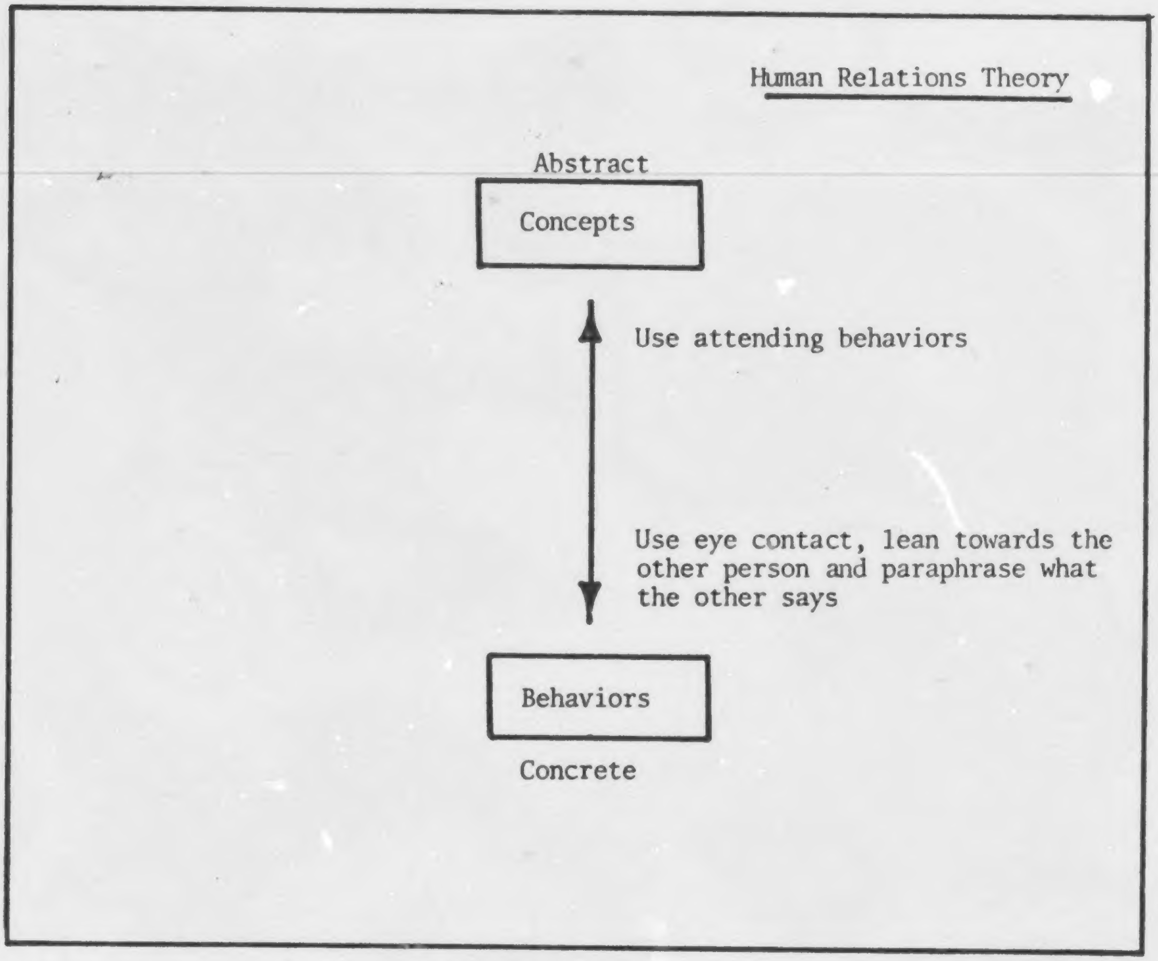
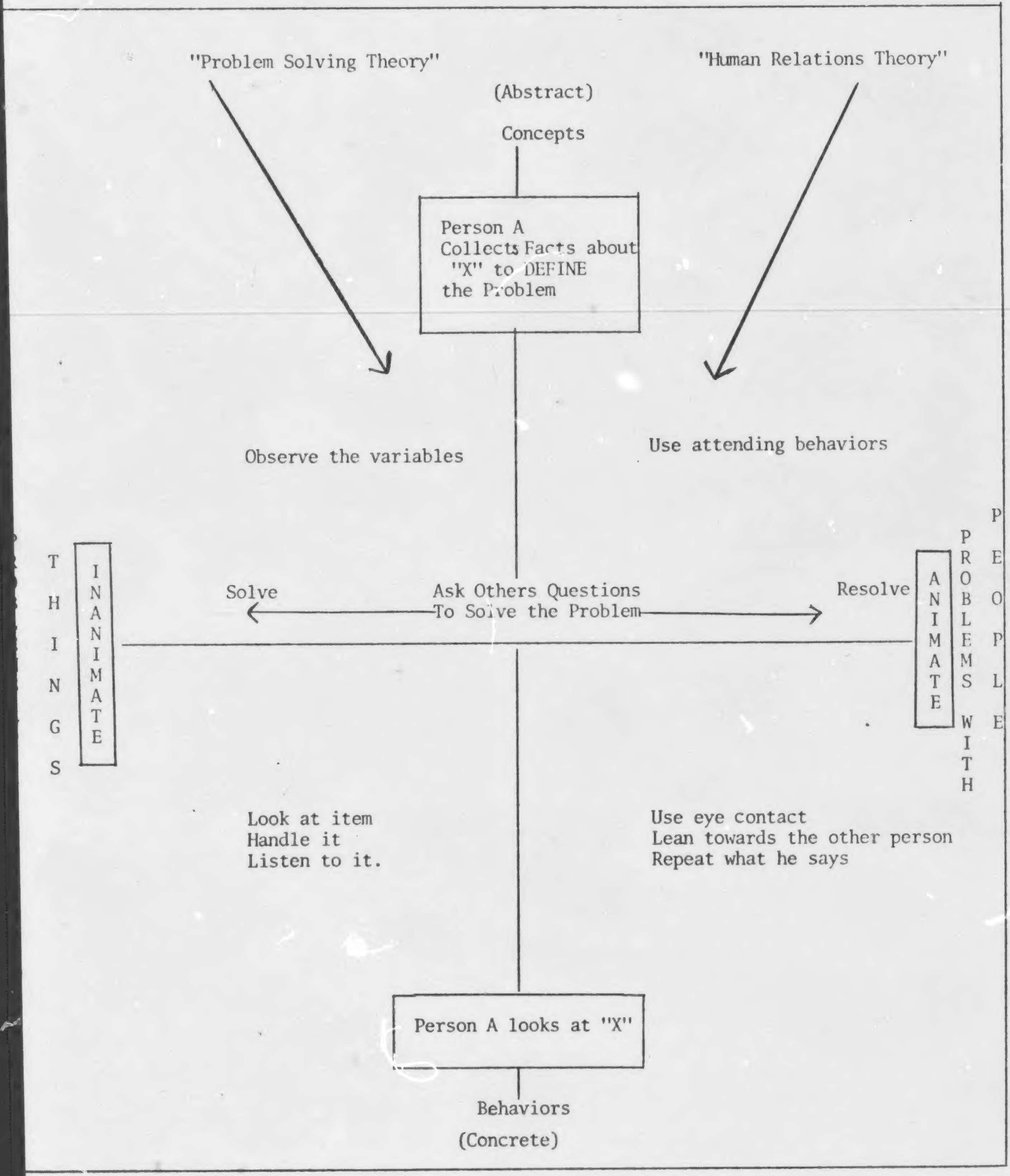

Human Relations Theory
Abstract
Concepts
Use attending behaviors
Use eye contact, lean towards the other person and paraphrase what the other says
Behaviors
Concrete

Figure 6

Figure 7


"Problem Solving Theory"
"Human Relations Theory"
(Abstract)
Concepts
Person A Collects Facts about "X" to DEFINE the Problem
Observe the variables
Use attending behaviors
THINGS
INANIMATE
Solve
Ask Others Questions To Solve the Problem
Resolve
ANIMATE
PROBLEMS WITH
PEOPLE
Look at item
Handle it
Listen to it.
Use eye contact
Lean towards the other person
Repeat what he says
Person A looks at "X"
Behaviors
(Concrete)

Some Added Complications

Not only do problems arise when we try to divide a problem into animate and inanimate elements, but in some circumstances we find "problem solvers" dealing with *things* as if they were *people* and in some other situations with *people* as if they were *things*.

For example, a musician, struggling with a new arrangement of music (and thus overcoming a problem) might deal with both the musical score and his instrument as if they were animate objects. He *swears*, *shouts*, *teases*, *caresses*; he *consults* and *directs*; he *attends to* and *interacts*; he *defines the problem*, *gathers facts* and *attempts alternative solutions*.

On the other hand, a magazine salesman, striving to achieve the top sales spot of the month (and thus trying to *influence* others in resolving his problem) might deal with persons in such a way that he shows little or no concern for the fact they want his magazines, or indeed that they can even read; instead he *manipulates*, *connives*, *colors*; he *describes*, *defines*, *limits the alternatives*, *does the planning* and *sets his plan into motion*. The innocent victim stands by as if helpless while the "problem solver" *deals* with him as if he were inanimate.

Another Alternative

The above discussion represents "problem solving" and "human relations" as similar behaviors directed towards different objects, animate (other people) and inanimate (things), and as opposite ends of a continuum.

Consider instead that problem solving skills conceptually subsume human relations skills and that human relations skills parallel more formal disciplines that have developed over the years. In this representation, problem solving skills take on the qualities and power of "The Scientific Method". They form the overall discovery approach to replicate or create solutions to problems; they transfer across disciplines, modified only to take into account the properties of the materials being processed. When chemistry is the discipline, then the "problem solver" (the chemist), expert in his field, manipulates the chemicals cognizant of the laws that govern their combination and behavior under various conditions; or when physics is the discipline, the "problem solver" (the physicist) proceeds with procedures to enhance or retard interrelations among matter and energy. Human relations skills then become problem solving behaviors used when the solving of the problem or the problem to be solved involves other people The person skilled in human relations has just as sophisticated a knowledge of and sensitivity of his material (other persons) as a chemist has to his materials (chemicals) or the musician has to his (musical instrument and score). His involvement with the materials is not without surprises any more than is that of the chemist; he must proceed with caution when exploring new directions, or when he is unsure of his materials, but he must take risks to gain new ground or form knowledge about a new subject.

Human relations skills, represented in this way, involve knowledge based on experience and tested by logic; they involve principles and laws derived by reasons; and they involve elements of the probable, possible and never to be known just as any other discipline. That which is "known" can be drawn together and can be shared through writings and instruction.

A body of literature about human relations is growing up in its own right, and while related to other social sciences, appears to be gaining status as an entity deserving of recognition and further study. Figure 8 shows how it may be pushing itself into line amongst more formal disciplines. It may well have more meaning here than when it is considered as synonymous with problem solving skills.

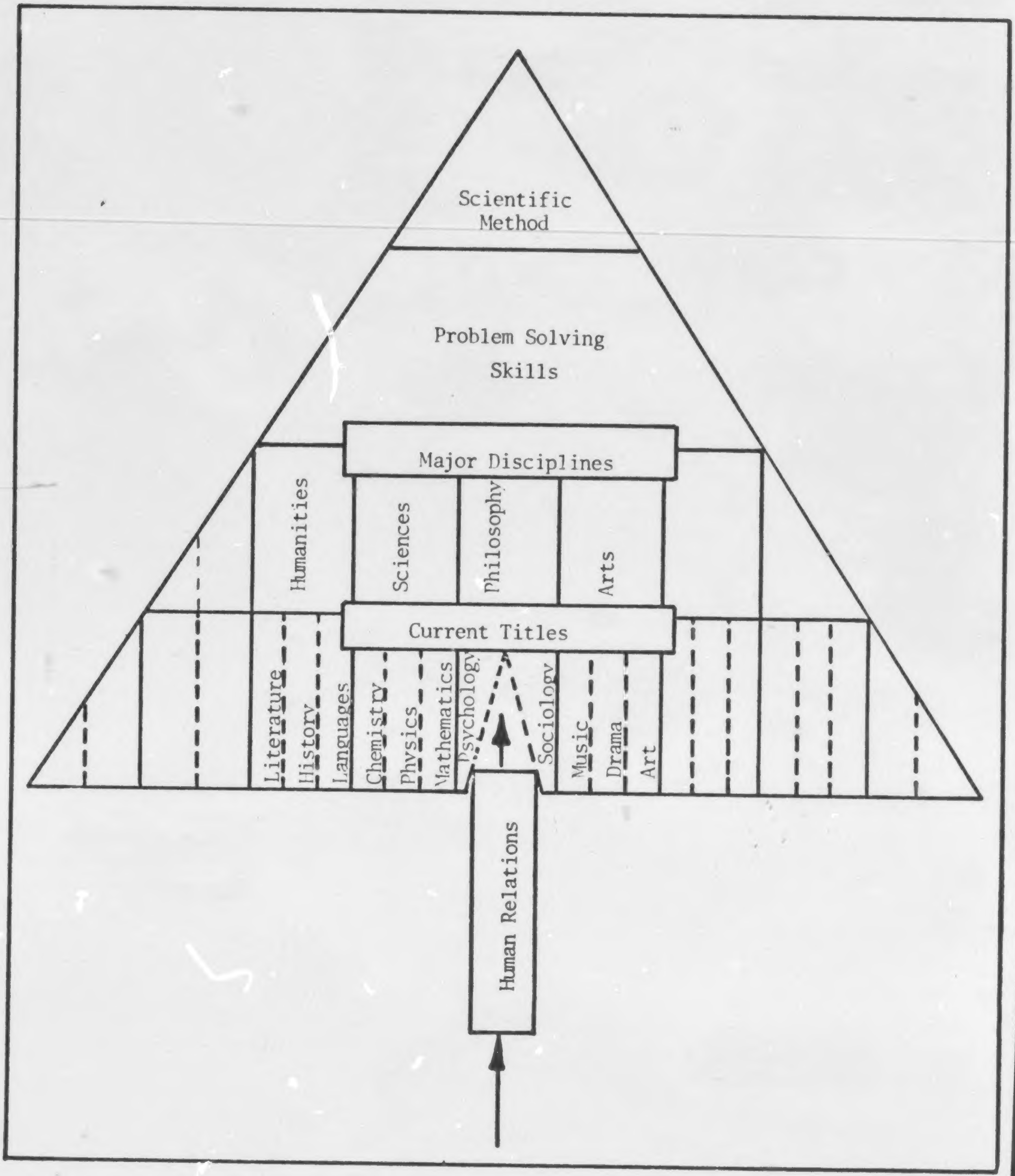
Differentiating Thinking Skills and Problem Solving Skills

Moving human relations skills in with the disciplines, and placing problem solving skills as a subset of the scientific method, may help clarify confusion around yet another problem. Much of the literature on problem solving skills appears to overlap theoretical explanations of thinking skills; indeed, many articles appear to use the two interchangeably. While it may be difficult to define problem solving skills because of the involvement of so-called "mediating processes" it would seem logical at least to differentiate the two theoretically. This would help us better define those skills we can control and therefore hope to render teachable. Gregory, in *The Management of Intelligence: Scientific Problem Solving and Creativity*, does differentiate the two. He lists the stages of creative thinking as *preparation*, *incubation*, *insight* or *illumination* and *verification*. He states that the method of scientific problem solving is a way of activating the stages of thinking by conscious programming of the subconscious. While this brings in a new element, it does make a desirable distinction: the skills become behaviors we can name and observe; the product of the thinking, concepts, become new knowledge, or new ideas, new content to add to the facts already collected, and thus can be recycled to stimulate further processing of the problem.

A Summary of the Problem

Problem solving behavior has been described in various ways and many theoretical explanations have been hypothesized. Human relations skills have been submitted to laboratory studies. Researchers in both fields have found validity for some aspects of the explanations, but seek further proof

Figure 8


Scientific Method
Problem Solving Skills
Major Disciplines
Humanities
Sciences
Philosophy
Arts
Current Titles
Literature
History
Languages
Chemistry
Physics
Mathematics
Psychology
Sociology
Music
Drama
Art
Human Relations

or redefinition of other aspects. What the reader who seeks information may forget is that the field of problem solving as well as the field of human relations is still in the laboratory phase; the theories have yet to be "proven", resultant "knowledge" derived from them still lacks verification. The process of abstracting observed behaviors from the concrete, real world, filtering them through the hypothetical, theoretical world, and then prescribing them as skills to be followed in solving problems in the real world, still lacks sophistication; much appears to be lost in the various translations. If it were not so, if the theories and the behaviors matched more perfectly, there would be no need for research; there would be no phenomena; the phenomenon would be replaced by "knowledge" and "comprehension". Skill development and teaching of the behaviors could easily follow by translating the "know-how" and the "know-why" into teaching units.

But confusion exists, and explanation is needed. One must have a way of sorting out and using what is known, especially if programs are to be developed using the skills, even if only to serve as a way of finding out more about the problem.

Problem Solving and Human Relation Skills as Used in the Context of the Life Skills Course

Problem solving and human relations skills have limited meaning when the theory from which they derive is not explained or understood. Since many theories in both fields exist, the definitions of the skills must be tied to their theoretical base to have meaning. To understand how the skills are used in the Life Skills Course, then, we must turn to the theory for an explanation.

"Life Skills, precisely defined", to quote an earlier essay in this book, "means problem solving behaviors appropriately and responsibly used in the management of personal affairs. As *problem solving behaviors*, life skills liberate in a way, since they include a relatively small class of behaviors usable in many life situations. *Appropriate* use requires an individual to adapt the behaviors to time and place. *Responsible* use requires maturity, or accountability. And as behaviors used in the *management of personal affairs*, the life skills apply to the five areas of life responsibly identified as self, family, leisure, community and job."

Problem solving skills thus defined as "Life Skills" involve problem solving where the problem solver deals with both *things* and *people* in various situations and is himself involved in or is a part of the problem. Life Skills thus envelops the fields of *problem solving* and *human relations* and *various other disciplines*. The "problem solver" finds he has control of some elements of the problem and can manipulate them much as a mathematician can label elements "X" and "Y" and manipulate them according to prescribed steps to come up with "Z". On the other hand, the "problem solver" finds that because the problems he has to solve in life situations almost always involve other people, he is not the only manipulator. Because many persons act on the problem, it too changes and is seldom static. This calls for skills that help the "problem solver" interact with other persons as well as to act on a new dynamic problem or a complex of problems.

Because we deal with problems constantly through life, we learn many skills to deal with them. On an abstract level we can explain the behaviors by saying we describe the situation, define problems and so on, but at an operational level we can only observe behaviors that could be directed to different situations: we ask questions, we look at people, we listen to what they say; we do not recognize these behaviors as problem solving or human relation skills unless we can identify a strategy; then we can interpret their purpose or intent, calling on the abstract terms for labels.

The skilled Life Skills problem solver is said to perform these behaviors appropriately and responsibly. He therefore knows "what" he does and "why" he does them. He therefore can tell the meaning of his behavior - thus abstracting: I looked at him, leaned forward, and repeated what he said, because I wanted to attend, I wanted to gather information, I wanted to define the problem. The skilled Life Skills problem solver can tell what behaviors to use in order to define a problem - thus deducing from theoretical terms to operational behaviors. In response to a question about how to define a problem, he can reply, "Ask questions beginning with, 'In what ways might...?' and Identify assumptions by asking 'why'?".

As well as explaining his behaviors or explaining what to do, the skilled Life Skills problem solver can perform a sampling of the operationally defined behaviors on demand. In response to how he might gather facts from an authority figure to help define a problem, the "Life Skiller" can in a real (or simulated) situation show how he asks questions and records the data. Whether he does this by writing a letter, interviewing in an office, writing on a notepad or recording an interview on a tape recorder depends on how he chooses to apply the skills appropriately. The Life Skills Course supplies many opportunities for both real and simulated situations; thus the student of Life Skills has ample opportunity to display his skills as well as to talk about them.

In Life Skills terms then, the "Life Skills" problem solver uses both problem solving and human relations skills. In using human relations skills he resolves conflicts as he interacts with others to solve problems. In using problem solving skills he finds solutions to sort out or put together pieces of a puzzle as he acts on his environment. He applies the skills from both fields to effect change in a positive direction, that is toward a goal he has established. The skills the "problem solver" uses can be defined on an abstract level as describing the situation, defining the *problem*, *choosing alternatives*, *applying the solution* and *evaluating the results* in proble solving terms (after John Dewey) or as *communicating*, *evaluating*, *controlling*, *deciding*, *reducing tension* or *reintegrating* (Bales Interaction Analysis). Both these systems interpret the meaning of their operational counterparts. At the operational level, the behaviors overlap, and while descriptive and prescriptive, do not have *meaning* in themselves; to make them *meaningful*, they must be linked to their abstract forms. Thus, in the literature we usually find the abstracted forms; if we remember that they *explain* but do not *describe*, then we can remember to translate them to their operational counterparts before we try to apply them.

If we examine the theory postulated for the Life Skills Course, we find problem solving skills, human relations skills and the student's response to the problem (the thinking skills or "mediating processes") represented in a three dimensional relationship. (See Figure 9.)

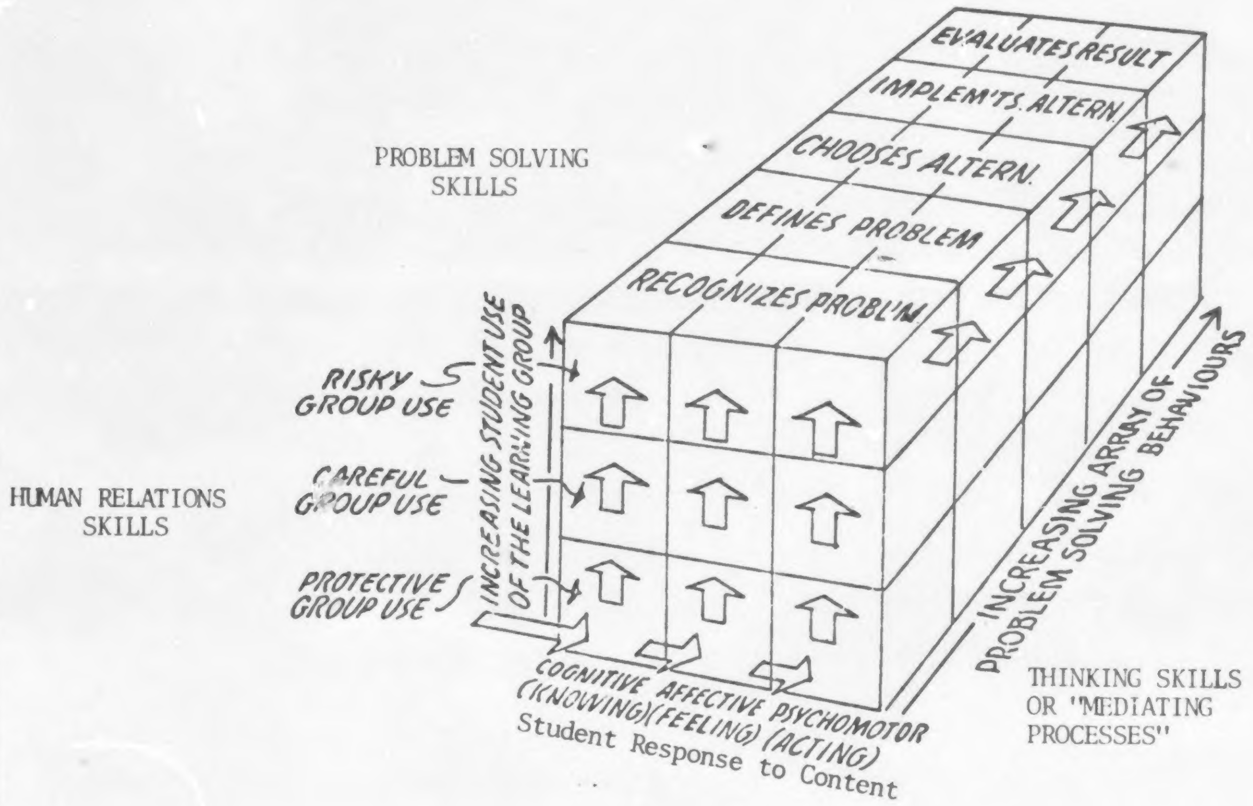

PROBLEM SOLVING SKILLS
EVALUATES RESULT
IMPLEM'TS. ALTERN.
CHOOSES ALTERN.
DEFINES PROBLEM
RECOGNIZES PROBL'M
HUMAN RELATIONS SKILLS
RISKY GROUP USE
CAREFUL GROUP USE
PROTECTIVE GROUP USE
INCREASING STUDENT USE OF THE LEARNING GROUP
INCREASING ARRAY OF PROBLEM SOLVING BEHAVIOURS
COGNITIVE (KNOWING)
AFFECTIVE (FEELING)
PSYCHOMOTOR (ACTING)
Student Response to Content
THINKING SKILLS OR "MEDIATING PROCESSES"

Figure 9

If we compare this with the axes presented earlier, we find the problem solving and human relations skills, not at opposite ends of a continuum, but in interaction, that is, as orthogonal vectors. As well, we find a third dimension related, the student's response to the content; this appears to parallel thinking skills or "mediating processes" postulated by some researchers.

Referring to the earlier explanation using the simple Cartesian Axis, and thinking along the vertical axis, we might represent the chart as several charts at various levels of abstraction. (See Figure 10.)

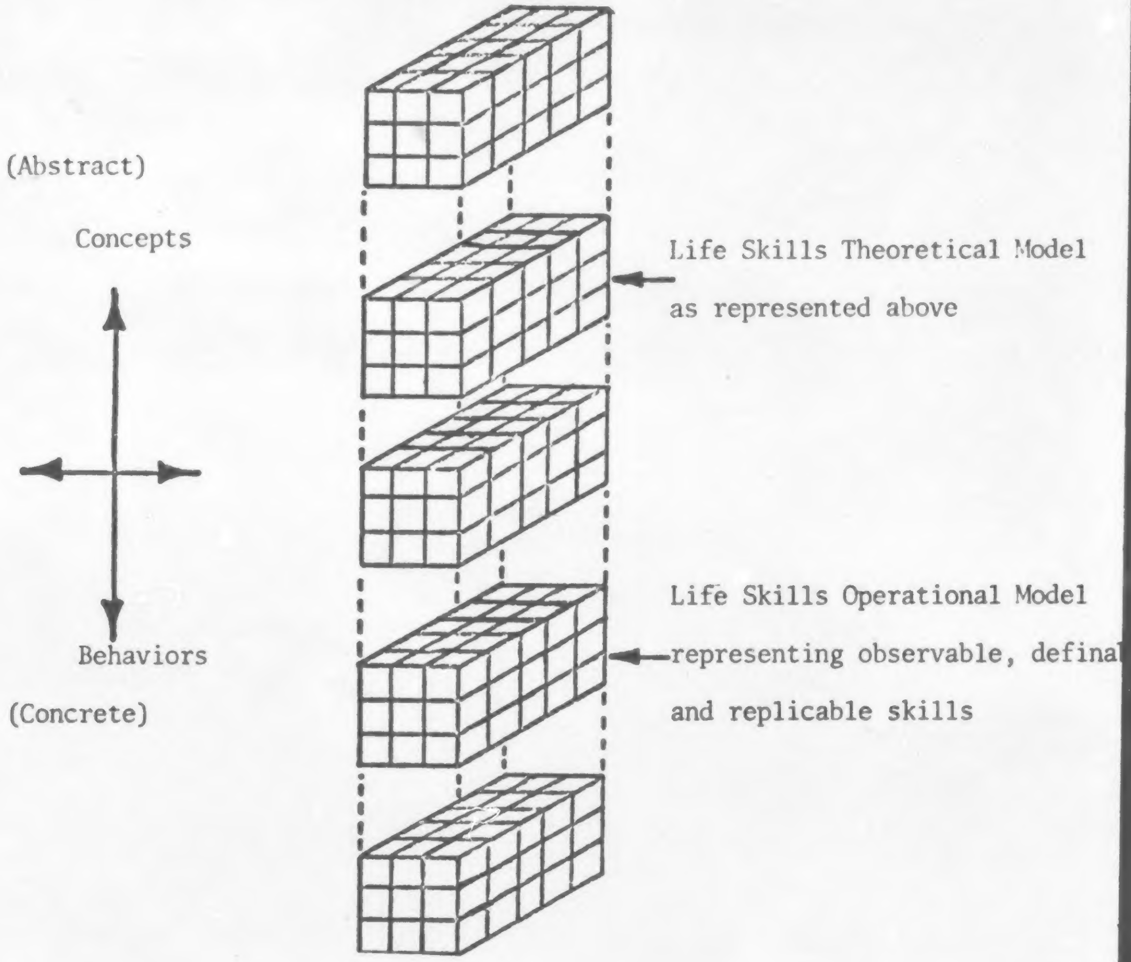

(Abstract)
Concepts
Behaviors
(Concrete)
Life Skills Theoretical Model
as represented above
Life Skills Operational Model
representing observable, definal
and replicable skills

Figure 10

The theoretical model provides a conceptual framework to explain how the behaviors fit together and how they can result in learning for the Life Skills student. The terms used to label the three dimensions of the table have generic qualities because they subsume a number of precise behaviors. If we were to move inside each of the boxes caused by the inter-sections of the various vectors, we could list behaviors identifiable with any of the three theories in isolation or we could assign new labels to show the interaction. In the Life Skills theory, a separate vocabulary was not developed; instead, terms were borrowed from other theories, primarily problem solving theory, although human relations labels also appear. The article, "A Description of the Life Skills Course" lists these skills:

Interviewing
Questioning
Comparing
Identifying Assumptions
Using Feedback
Listening Skills
Skill Teaching
Describing Feelings
Organizing Information
Fantasizing
Sensitizing

Role Playing
Using Help
Use Multi-Media
Contracting
Planning
Using Criteria
Supporting Others
Defining Judgement
Reporting
Summarizing
Problem Solving With A System

These skills would fall at neither extreme on the abstract-concrete axis, nor in the range of "concept" or "observable behaviors"; most would appear about mid-point on the axis.

If we wish to look at the behaviors to identify how they relate to the independent dimensions, we can take examples from the articles, "Life Skills: A Course in Applied Problem Solving" and "The Study of Problem Solving in the Life Skills Course".

Table 1, from the second article, summarizes the Problem Solving Process using the generic terms of the Process/Content Model but also specifying concrete ways to carry out the processes.

Table 2 specifies even more detail for the second step, Define the Problem.

Table 3, taking descriptions from the first article mentioned above, lists examples from The Student Response to Content Dimension and Table 4 does the same with The Student Use of Group Dimension.

TABLE 1

A SUMMARY OF A PROBLEM SOLVING PROCESS[1]

1. Recognize the problem situation

   Write a brief description in which you answer the questions, who? when? what? where? why? how?

2. Define the problem

   First: Collect more facts. Ask more questions about your description. Ask as many questions as you can, but do not ask questions beginning with why, could or might.

   Second: Ask questions beginning, "In what ways might...?".

   Third: Test each "In what ways might...?" question with "why?".

   Fourth: Choose the best "In what ways might...?" question as your definition of the problem.

3. Choose a solution

   First: Find possible solutions.

   Second: Find criteria.

   Third: Choose a solution.

   Fourth: Predict results.

4. Implement a solution

   First: Plan how to carry out the solution.

   Second: Carry out the plan.

5. Evaluate the result

   Compare the result of the action with what you predicted for the results.

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[1] Adapted from Parnes, 1967

TABLE 2

1. Define the Problem

    - Clarify your description of the problem
        - Collect facts
            - Decide what you want to know
                - List questions to ask
            - Decide where to find answers
                - List who to ask
                - List what books to consult
                - List events to observe
            - Find answers to your questions
                - Ask questions
                - Read books
                - Observe events
            - Record your facts
                - Memorize them
                - Write them down
                - Tape them - audio, visually, etc.

2. Word your problem to act as a device for finding solutions.

    - Write the problem as a question
        - Begin your question with the words, "In what ways might...?"

3. Identify assumptions to uncover hidden elements of the problem.

    - Test each "In what ways...?" question with "why?"
    - Write a new question if you uncover new elements to the problem.

4. Make a decision on the best wording of the problem.

    - Choose the best "In what ways might...?" question as your definition of the problem.

TABLE 3

Abstract ——→ Less Abstract

Student Response to Content Dimension

Cognitive Response (Provides the student with a "factual" base.)	The student may: Rephrase a sentence in his own words Summarize the happenings of a lesson Recall, Synthesize Relate the discussion in a lesson to an experience in his home life, thereby contrasting and comparing Link the items in one lesson to those in another thereby showing relationships Repeat Recall Explain Analyze Apply Synthesize Evaluate
Affective Response (Expresses his will to face the consequences of the new knowledge and its effect on him.)	The student may: Blurt out how some things look to him Reject lessons by walking out Stay but participate passively Speak "loyally" of the group and the activities of the lessons Defend the activities of the course and the group against outside criticism Enthusiastically tell others what he has learned Accept own feelings and those of others
Psychomotor Response (Represents his commitment to action.)	The student may: Stand up and move about as required in trust exercises Go onto the street to conduct interviews Go with his group on excursions Demonstrate new behaviors to others Draw a self portrait Participate in role playing situations

TABLE 4

The Student Use of Group Dimension

Safe Group Use	The student: Continues interpersonal behaviors which in the past have met his needs Continues to withdraw Continues to bully Continues to harmonize the group activities
Careful Group Use	The student: Ventures into the practice of behaviors new to him Models new behaviors after those of the coach and other members of the group Draws the attention of other group members to this new behavior, seeking support and acknowledgement Tries the new behaviors with strangers visiting the group
Risky Group Use	The student: Asks directly for criticisms of his new behaviors Seeks to refine new behaviors and make them more effective Gives feedback to others Ventures opinion which he knows others in the group might find startling coming from him Expresses strong feelings to others Objects to some procedures the coach has used

These tables illustrate how the abstract labels must be defined into operational counterparts for teaching purposes; but it must be remembered that just as definitions bear little meaning removed from the theory they explain, so too the operational definitions lose meaning if removed from the theory, or concept, from which they derive; their meaning is derived deductively. Because in precise definitions the operational definitions consist of "overt" behaviors like look at, read, lean forward, they can be interpreted differently as we saw earlier. They can also overlap: a behavior like interviewing might occur in defining a problem or in choosing alternatives. Thus they have no theoretical meaning or explanatory power outside of the theory for which they were postulated as observable behaviors.

A Way to Measure Problem Solving Human Relations Skills

The position taken in this paper leads to a useful and useable means for determining whether or not a person has the capability to apply problem solving and human relations skills appropriately and responsibly to problems arising in life situations: in other words whether or not he has "Life Skills". When asked to solve a problem (act on his environment) or to resolve a conflict (interact with others to solve a problem), the skilled "Life Skiller" can tell what he must do and why he must do it and he can do it. If he is asked, "Define the problem," he collects facts and phrases a search question with the words, "In what ways might...?". If he is asked to interpret what he was doing when he said, "Let's decide what to do," he can identify the purpose of his behavior. In other words, if he is given an abstract direction, he can operationalize it and do it; when he is given an operational direction he can do it and explain it, abstracting it to a meaningful level.

In performing these actions, tell and show what to do and why you did it, various levels of proficiency in both action and verbalization skill can be expected at both the concrete and the abstract levels. Just as an IQ compares the ways different people perform the same skills defined as "skills of intelligence", so a PSQ could likely be developed to measure the quantity and quality of skill performance for skills defined as "Problem Solving Skills". The skills would be performed at a concrete level, but interpreted at an abstract level.

The Life Skills Course, while not demanding sophisticated language to explain and show how skills are performed, demands proficiency in both these processes. In the article, "The Study of Problem Solving in the Life Skills Course", R. Himsl talks about the processes of abstracting and applying as the learning model. It shows how the student alternates the two processes. In the Life Skills Course, in the lesson Evaluating Problem Solving Skills, the concrete and abstract are matched by the student (he talks about them), he teaches them to others (he explains them) and he displays them in group interaction (he applies them).

The student in Life Skills is not expected to expound on all the complexities of his problem solving behaviors; like the researcher he would experience great difficulty. But he does perform the same type of process, on a less sophisticated level. At the end of the course he should have more awareness of what he knows and does and the capability to perform more skills than when he entered. If a PSQ were established, it could provide standards against which to measure progress. At present the student and his fellow group members give subjective ratings in the lesson, Evaluating Problem Solving Skills. They rate each other on past performance and on performance in a group. A more sophisticated development of these techniques could well lead to useful criterion measures for others to follow. Standardization of the measure with various groups could help answer the question, "What level of skill and awareness is optimal for 'success' in dealing with problems life presents?". It could also help define more precisely those behaviors explainable as human relations skills, thinking skills or problem solving skills when taken to an abstract and theoretical level.

Problem Solving and Human Relations Skills Defined

This paper explored the problem of clarifying complex, human, even "ubiquitous" behavior in order to arrive at definitions that can guide course development and lead to criterion measures, particularly in relation to the Life Skills course.

The exploration posited certain assumptions to clarify various aspects of the problem. As a result of the discussion, these definitions are offered to aid further development of skill training in the Life Skills course:

Problem solving skills in the Life Skills context refer to those behaviors directed towards effecting positive change in one's environment. In using goal directed behaviors, the "problem solver" often interacts with other persons as he acts on problems of a static or dynamic nature; he adapts his strategies appropriately and responsibly to take into account those elements of the problem which interfere with its successful resolution.

Human relations skills in the Life Skills context refer to those behaviors directed toward self or others which enhance interaction so that interpersonal conflicts do not interfere with the "problem solver's" efforts to cooperatively work with others toward problem solution. As problems in the Life Skills course almost always include other persons, and certainly always oneself, human relations skills receive prominent attention.

Human Relations skills, while frequently considered synonymous with Problem Solving Skills, might rather be considered a body of knowledge related to more formal disciplines. This approach would provide a way to study and analyse the laws of human interaction and to model the most profitable skills that have been identified. Problem solving skills, then, would be directed towards goal achievement, assuming the necessity for the "problem solver" to adapt his skills to account for the elements involved in the situation.

APPENDIX

Quotations Relating to Problem Solving, Human Relations and Thinking Skills

Keeping in mind the idea of the two axes, the abstract-concrete or concept-behavior axis and the animate-inanimate or things-people axis, and looking for similarities or overlap in the descriptors used to discuss problem solving, human relations and thinking skills, consider these quotes found in scanning the literature:

Concerning definitions of problem solving:

Gagne: "Problem solving is an inferred change in human capability that results in the acquisition of a generalizable rule which is novel to the individual, which cannot have been established by direct recall, and which can manifest itself in applicability to the solution of a class of problems."

Adkins & Rosenberg: "Application of knowledge to the solution of problems."

Kaplan: "The simplicity of any one reconstruction of any one method is not meant to deaden awareness of the complexity of the process of inquiry taken as a whole. If we are to do justice to this complexity, I think it is hard to improve on P.W. Bridgman's remark that 'the scientist has no other method than doing his damnedest!'".

Gregory: "Creative innovation is the result of subconscious communication with the conscious...
Scientific problem solving is a means of facilitating all the stages of thinking, including incubation and illumination, by conscious programming of the subconscious."

Concerning human relations behavior:

Ivey: "Human relations is defined as behaviors exhibited in relation to self and other individuals, and with groups. Thus an individual thinking about himself is engaging in human relations behavior (in this case, the direct observation of behavior is available only to the individual behaving). Two individuals meeting in an interpersonal interaction are engaging in human relations behaviors. School classrooms or group dynamics sessions represent situations where a vast series of human relations behaviors are emitted. In short, any behavior or behaviors engaged in intra- or inter-personal activity represents human relations behavior. No one can escape behaving in a human relations framework.

Any human relations behavior represents a value decision. To behave means to decide. Decision making implies three phases of activity.

(1) A problem is defined. In human relations we might consider the issues of how a principal might respond to a child "sent to the office". (It may be observed that defining the problem actually represents considering alternatives for definition of the problem and then committing oneself to a definition.)

(2) Consideration of alternative solutions to the problem. This step represents "divergent thinking" and is closely allied to concepts of creativity. Once a problem is defined, it is essential that many alternative solutions be considered. In the case of the school child, the principal should consider many alternatives for his behavior (e.g., a spanking, a scolding, a warm fatherly chat, do nothing, etc.).

(3) A decision is made to commit oneself to what is seen as the most likely alternative. The principal might decide to listen to the child and then decides to try to help the child see the implications of his behavior and then suggests changes to both the student and the teacher. Important in effective decision making or "convergent thinking" is the ability to reflect constantly on the decision made and to be able to change one's mind should additional evidence present itself.

(4) Now, while it is possible to describe the decision of framework as it has been above, it is equally clear that most human behavior does not slowly go through such a process. Most of our behavior is "automatic". Courses in school administration, the micro-teaching framework, laboratory experiences in science all attempt to bring the learner to greater awareness of the processes by which such decisions are made. They then may return to their decision framework to help clarify difficult problems. Thinking in human relations can involve the same process of bringing methods of decision to increased awareness.

To sum up:
(1) Human relations is defined as behaviors exhibited in relation to self and others, and with groups.

(2) Human relation behaviors represent value decisions made on the basis of:

a. definitions of problem;
b. consideration of alternative behaviors; and
c. commitment to a course of action.

In addition, it was suggested that much human relations activity does not actually take into account these dimensions of decision. *Pulsating thinking* is presented as a concept which integrates the three stages of decisions into one activity.

(3) The *processes* of human relations behavior are similar to the processes of administration, teaching, or simply being a person."

Rogers: "Taking all of this section, we may attempt to compress it into one overall law governing interpersonal relationships, specifying the functional relationship between the constructs. Here is such an attempt.

Conversely, the greater the communicated *incongruence* of *experience*, *awareness*, and behavior, the more the ensuing relationship will involve further communication with the same quality, disintegration of accurate understanding, lessened *psychological adjustment* in both parties, and mutual dissatisfaction in the relationship.

Comment. This is still a theory in the making, rather than a finished product. It does not grow out of consideration of research data and grows only partly out of experience. Basically, it is deduced from the theory of therapy and projects into a new area a series of hypotheses which now require confirmation or disproof. The evidence gained in such studies should not only modify or confirm the theory of interpersonal relationships but should reflexively throw new light on the theory of therapy as well.

Evidence. It is believed that there is evidence from experience and some research evidence concerning this theory. It seems preferable, however, simply to present it as a deduced theory."

Concerning thinking skills:

Gregory: "Scientific thinking is in definite contrast to other ways of thought. It is not a panacea or a guarantee of success. Instead, it is a method of thinking that increases the probability of achieving relative success in the shortest possible length of time."

Gregory: "It is important to enhance the point that steps of scientific problem solving would not be confused with the stages of thinking (Preparation, Incubation, Insight, or Illumination, Verification). The method of scientific problem solving is a way of activating the stages of thinking. It is an 'out-of-our-skins' family of sequential, integrated steps which guide a series of conscious mental functions."

Ivey: "This type of approach to thinking and behaving could be called 'pulsating thinking'. It is behavior which involves individuals constantly in divergent and convergent thinking in their effort to understand and organize their world. Distinctions between convergent and divergent thinking may be unnecessary. While three phases have been presented for decision making, it may be observed that each of the three phases involves simultaneously consideration of alternatives and simultaneous decision. For example, when an alternative is added to a framework, the selection of the alternative was a decision..."

Dewey: "The moment one thinks of a possible solution and holds it in suspense, he turns back to the facts. He has now a point of view that leads him to new observations and recollections and to a reconsideration of observations already made in order to test the worth of the suggested way out. Unless he uses the suggestion so as to guide to new observations instead of exercising suspended judgment, he accepts it as soon as it presents itself."

"A technical term for the observed facts is *data*. The data form the material that has to be interpreted, accounted for, explained; or, in the case of deliberation as to what to do or how to do it, to be managed and utilized. The suggested solutions for the difficulties disclosed by observation form *ideas*. *Data* (facts) and ideas (suggestions, possible solutions) thus form the two indispensable and correlative factors of all reflective activity. The two factors are carried on by means respectively of *observation* (in which for convenience is included memory of prior observations of similar cases) and *inference*. The latter runs beyond what is actually present. It relates, therefore, to what is possible, rather than to what is actual. It proceeds by anticipation, supposition, conjecture, imagination. All foresight, prediction, planning, as well as theorizing and speculation, are characterized by excursion from the actual into the possible. Hence (as we have already seen) what is inferred demands a double test: first the process of forming the idea or supposed solution is checked by constant cross reference to the conditions observed to be actually present; secondly the idea *after* it is formed is tested by acting upon it, overtly if possible, otherwise in imagination. The consequences of this action confirm, modify, or refute the idea.

There will always be the two sides: the conditions to be accounted for, dealt with, and the ideas that are plans for dealing with them or are suppositions for interpreting and explaining the phenomena."

Gregory: "Scientific problem solving facilitates the ability of the conscious mind to communicate with the sub-conscious, thereby speeding up the stages of thinking."

Ivey: Pulsating Thinking

"Stage I: Problem Definition

- A. Consideration of alternative definitions of the problem. (Divergent thinking.)
- B. Tentative commitment to one definition of the problem. (Convergent thinking.)

Stage II: Consideration of Albernative Solutions

- A. Development of as many alternative solutions to the problem as possible. (Divergent thinking.)
- B. It may be noted that the decision to include a thought as a possible alternative solution or reject it as irrelevant to the problem is convergent thinking.
- C. If it is difficult to discover alternatives, a redefinition of the problem and a return to Stage I may be necessary. (Feedback.)

Stage III: Decision for Action

- A. Consideration of the possible implications for action of each alternative. (Divergent thinking.)
- B. A tentative commitment is made to a course of action. (Convergent thinking.)
- C. If none of the alternatives seems suitable or the decision proves inadequate, return to Stage III A to examine other alternatives, or Stage II to develop new alternatives or Stage I to reconceptualize the problem. (Feedback.)"

Concerning the animate-inanimate axis:

Straus: "A problem has been solved when the state of conflict has been removed, lessened, or changed satisfactorily. A problem is solved when we are content, or resigned to what we have done, when the situation is a little better, when it is resolved in some way. Solve is an unfortunate word to have to use because it has a connotation of the clarity and finality involved in mathematical problem-solving. We should use the word resolve... but remember that solving is really reducing the state of conflict."

Hodnett: "The solving of problems is the search for order, for the overcoming of disorder.
A solution rarely if ever equals the answer. It is the one that you have chosen as the best in the circumstances. Another might work better. Under other circumstances you might choose another. Still, while you look for the best answer for a specific problem at a specific time, you hope to find one that will work for similar problems in the future.
What you might take from the scientist - and what the scientist might apply to problems outside his specialty - is the habit of approaching problems in an organized way.
Problem solving is not merely the search for order. It is the establishment and cultivation of order once it is discovered. Problems change. Even as you study a problem it changes. Your efforts to solve it will change it."

Straus: "Problem-solving can be seen as a constant balancing process between strategies that attack from different directions and that each direction may have an opposite that is equally valid."

Straus: "A general kind of plan to approach the problem in stages.... can be seen reflected in professional documentation in all fields. These stages, or phases are generally: problem perception, problem definition and analysis, planning and prediction, alternative generation, evaluation, and synthesis.
These phases can be seen as different goals in problem-solving, a different object of focus for our strategies. In problem perception the strategies act as a filter to help us see what is in front of us."

Hodnett: "Problems are complex....Many problems are not merely complex. They are in reality complexes -- group of problems put under one heading for convenience of reference."

Dewey: "....two limits of every unit of thinking are a perplexed, troubled, or confused situation at the beginning and a cleared-up, unified, resolved situation at the close."

Concerning the abstract-concrete axis:

Kaplan: "This book will contain no definition of "scientific method", whether for the study of man or for any other science. My reason in part, is that I believe that there are other and often better ways of making meanings clear than by giving definitions. But I also forgo a definition because I believe there is no one thing to be defined. To revert to an earlier metaphor, one could as well speak of 'the method' for baseball. There are ways of pitching, hitting, and running bases; ways of fielding; managerial strategies for pinch hitters and relief pitchers; ways of signaling, coaching, and maintaining team spirit. All of these, and more besides, enter into playing the game well, and each of them has an indefinite number of variants. We could say, of course, that there is only one way to play: to score runs if you are batting, and to prevent them if you are not. And this statement would be about as helpful as any general and abstract definition of scientific method! The questions important to the players arise at a more specific and concrete level."

Kaplan: "Scientists and philosophers use a logic--they have a cognitive style which is more or less logical -- and some of them also formulate it explicitly. I call the former the 'logic-in-use', and the latter the 'reconstructed logic'. We can no more take them to be identical or even assume an exact correspondence between them, than we can in the case of the decline of Rome and Gibbon's account of it, a patient's fever and his physician's explanation of it!"

Ivey: "Human relations is not a mysterious activity. Rather, it is a codifiable set of behaviors which describes what goes on between people. Important in this model is that thinking and behavior are viewed as one and the same thing.* The human relations framework presented here is concerned only with directly observable human behaviors..."
"A reconstructed logic is not a description but rather an idealization of scientific practise."

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* Skinner (1968) has stated, "To think often means simply to behave." He further observes that "behavioral processes, such as learning, discriminating, generalizing, and abstracting...are not behavior but changes in behavior." Skinner believes it is not necessary to teach generalization, for example, but it may suffice simply to teach the behaviors which lead the child to make abstractions or generalizations.

Kaplan: "Behavioral science is involved in a double process of interpretation, and it is this which is responsible for such of its techniques as are distinctive. The behavioral scientist must first arrive at an act meaning, that is, construe what conduct a particular piece of behavior represents; and then he must search for the meaning of the interpreted action, its interconnections with other actions or circumstances. He must first see the act of marking a ballot or operating a machine as the action of casting a vote, and then pursue his study of voting behavior."

Whitla: "Gulford acknowledges that the abilities defined by his model (Model of Intellect) do not represent functions that operate separately in behavior and that there are 'many intricate kinds of mutual involvement of abilities in everyday life'."

Hodnett: "Learning to solve problems is like learning to play baseball. You learn to throw, to catch, to bat, to run bases, to make plays, and to execute all sorts of refinements of these basic skills. You do not learn to play baseball. You learn these basic skills separately, and you put them together in new combinations every game. ....There is no one-two-three method for solving problems. You learn the skills, and you combine them to play the game as circumstances dictate."

Bales: "The objective of the category system is described in global terms as follows: 'It is assumed that the goal of the social scientist is to discover "empirical generalizations" about human behavior and to show that these observed uniformities are special cases or special combinations of more abstract and more general propositions'. ....The kinds of content to be recorded were to reveal structure and dynamics of interaction."

Gregory: "Scientific problem solving was developed by abstracting the best elements from many accepted methods of research and problem solving. The steps of the method are arranged in their most effective operational sequence. Creative imagination in all its dimensions has been systematically combined both directly and indirectly with the cold, analytical logic of scientific reasoning. Scientific problem solving must not be thought of as a structured Arthur Murray dance step. Instead, it is a self-corrective way of thinking that has been designed to be flexible yet focused. It alternately demands creative and imaginative thinking and then the application of rigorous methods of judgmental logic."

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A PHILOSOPHIC BASIS FOR LIFE SKILLS: A COURSE IN APPLIED PROBLEM SOLVING

- R. Himsl

Introduction. We may define *philosophy* as a statement of general principles governing a field of activity, in this instance, the implementation of the Life Skills Course. As a philosophy, this statement links certain essential aspects of the Life Skills Course: objectives of the course, certain definitions, the view of learning on which the course depends, the kind of man the course seeks to develop, and teaching methods.

The Objectives of the Life Skills Course. Life Skills means problem solving behaviors appropriately and responsibly applied in the management of one's personal affairs. This definition implies the main objectives of the Life Skills training: the course aims to produce graduates who will draw from a repertoire of problem solving behaviors to meet the problems of everyday life. To produce graduates who can do this, the course provides practice in the use of these behaviors. These problem solving behaviors include behaviors as specific as accepting and making use of criticism (feedback), asking for help, asking questions, keeping records, listening, classifying, clarifying, rank ordering, predicting consequences, planning, brainstorming, forcing relationships, using criteria, and expressing feelings. More generally, it includes such skills as recognizing problem situations, identifying assumptions, formulating alternative solutions to problems, defining problems, carrying out plans, and evaluating the effectiveness with which the student carries out his plan and achieves his goal. The extent to which the student uses these new behaviors in his life after completing the course measures his success; accordingly, the student meets the criterion of success on the course if he shows evidence of using the new behaviors.

Restricting the use of these skills to the management of personal affairs by the definition, circumscribes the course objectives. It places the use of these skills in a somewhat limited, if highly relevant context, that of the personal relationships of the individual, and distinguishes them from those skills particular to the job a person might hold. The course defines the term "personal affairs", by describing Life Skills as those behaviors an individual uses managing his affairs with respect to self, family, community, job, and leisure. Most learning theory, and much experience affirm that the more the learning situation resembles the practical situation, the greater the amount of transfer; the more abstracted the learning situation, the more difficult the learning. The course aims to provide learning situations which carry elements of real life situations, or better yet, it aims to create real life situations in which to use the skills.

But if the specific objectives of the course develop the effective use of problem solving behaviors in the management of personal affairs, a rather less clearly defined objective both subsumes and follows their development: the course aims to develop an individual confident enough to express himself in the discriminating use of these new behaviors. The course builds upon those effective behaiviors already possessed by the students by adding new behaviors to his repertoire; in the course he recognizes the strengths he already has, and learns of strengths he may never before have recognized.

Learning. A basic principle necessarily concerns the concept of learning implied in the Life Skills Course. Learning has at least two, not entirely distinct meanings. Simply, and most satisfyingly, learning means changed behavior. Scrutiny of that definition exposes some shortcomings, but these shortcomings notwithstanding, the Life Skills Course says that learning takes place if students change their behaviors to match those behaviors described by the course objectives. In addition to meaning changed behavior, learning, in the Life Skills sense, also means the use of knowledge, and in this connection the course materials define a skill as "the application of knowledge to the solution of a problem." In a broad sense, the use of knowledge has behavioral qualities to it, but such behavior may appear secondarily; in other words, before the behavior appears, the student carries out some mental processes, which may constitute new learning, but the behavioral evidence may not adequately indicate such learning. Learning, in the sense of changed behavior, shows itself when the student achieves the objective of the lesson; in the second sense the observer may only assume the learning; he assumes that because teaching has taken place, some learning has also occurred.

These overlapping views of learning seem consistent with Polanyi's (1958) description of *tacit* and *explicit* knowledge. Polanyi describes *tacit* knowledge as the 'feel' of a situation. He calls *explicit* knowledge those things usually described as knowledge, as set out in writing, maps and mathematical formulae. The learner may have difficulty articulating his knowledge in words; he may not make it explicit in Polanyi's sense, but he may know it well enough in spite of that. He says, "... at all mental levels, it is not the functions of articulate logical operations, but the tacit powers of the mind that are decisive." (Polanyi, 1958, p. 19) The Life Skills Course expresses the same sort of realization, with the description of the different domains of knowledge using terminology from Bloom's (1956) taxonomy. The cognitive domain seems to coincide with Polanyi's concept of *explicit* knowledge, and the affective and psychomotor domains draw much from his concept of *tacit* knowledge. The Life Skills Course exploits the tacit learning powers, encouraging the students to recognize the personal quality of their feelings and to become actively involved in the use and consequences of the acquisition of knowledge. The deliberate use of role-play, for example, as a means of projecting the student into a new situation presumes that a learner can apprehend in part only, the meaning of a new experience by an intellectual appreciation of it; his involvement of intellect, body, and emotion, can affect the nature of the learning. In some lessons in the Life Skills Course, students predict the consequences of a particular set of personal interactions after reading about a situation, and then acting out certain elements of the situation in role play and arriving at additional, alternative predictions. Reading about the situation enables the participants to maintain a detached view, but the role-play situation requires them to put more than their intellect to work; it involves also their physical appearance, their voices, their emotions, and their energies and new, unexpected learnings follow from this greater involvement of self.

The Life Skills Course acknowledges the place of feelings and emotions in the learning process. It encourages the students to express their feelings about the topic under discussion and provides situations in which the students can act upon their feelings. The admission of these aspects into the learning process admits also a subjective quality to knowledge and knowledge in a pure objective sense vanishes, since no learner apprehends without the involvement of feelings, pre-existing "cognitive maps" and experiences, all of which have an individual aspect to them, shared with no one else. As a practical result of this orientation, the coach backs away from categorical replies to the student's request for the "right answer." He tells the students, "I can tell you what people have found out; I can show you what they say; but you must judge on the basis of what you know, and on your own experience, what is the right answer."

Such an approach to learning legitimizes past experiences and feelings possessed by the student. Though the casual observer might regard the coaching procedures which draw out these experiences as manipulative rituals aimed at gaining the students' support for the course activities, or as a means of currying the favor of the students for ease of control, a view of learning which sees the student placing his new knowledge against a unique network of emotion, experience, self concept, and cognitive style, suggests an ethical reason for these methods. If the Life Skills coach recognizes that each individual in his group carries a unique life experience to the learning setting which affects his response to it, he recognizes at the same time that he can make no assumptions about the reactions of his students; and he must encourage the students to express these reactions lest they continue in suppressed and unrecognized form, remaining unchanged and standing in the way of new learning.

The philosophic disposition leads to an acknowledgement of the feelings of the learner which differ from those given by many of our dominant social institutions. In the family, church, school, and most adult interpersonal actions, people strive to develop control of feelings; in practice, this means their suppression. An early conception of the Life Skills Course included provision for the recognition of feelings, because the designers considered that failure to do so left an obstacle in the way of effective (cognitive) learning. That seemed reason enough, but a find in the writing of A.R. Luria (1966) extended this notion. Luria says that expression and discussion of feelings increase the control which the individual has over them. Polanyi adds to our understanding by saying,in effect, that acknowledgement of feeling and control of feeling, if nothing more happens, helps, but more than that he says learning does not take place without feeling and action. Polanyi would have those who plan learning experiences involve all aspects of a person in the new learning; thus the learning, whether a mental process or a new behavior, takes on a dynamic personal quality. This concept of learning as a very personal act has a useful consistency with the development of the individual confident in the use of the new behaviors; it says that the mature individual recognizes and accepts himself, respecting his own uniqueness and that of others around him.

The Nature of Man and Life Skills. The foregoing implies an existential man, validating knowledge on the basis of personal experience and utility. This personal interpretation perforce rejects interpretations of value and truth outside the individual. The intense personal involvement of the individual in learning deliberately promotes the development of the student's use of the new knowledge, strengthening his ability to account for his behaviors and his will to accept responsibility for his behaviors.

This philosophic disposition reflects a like orientation in course design. The definition of Life Skills as "problem solving behaviors responsibly and appropriately used ..." refers to the student's ultimate responsibility for his actions, a logical expectation for an adult learner. The appropriate use of the skill requires the learner to modify and adapt his behavior to the press of circumstances; furthermore, it emphasizes the personal qualities of the knowledge and skills. It says to the student that he must judge the use of the behavior in the circumstance. The lesson design emphasizes personal responsibility and accountability for the practice of the skills, rejecting appeal to excuse making and bragging statements which actually reveal the students' reluctance to try the new behavior. The student practices his skills in the "here and now." Originally, this restriction aimed at preventing the student from dipping into the past to explore in a kind of amateur psycho-analysis, things in his past over which he had no control; it prevented the group, or any member in the group from attempting questionable and possibly dangerous interpretations. But when seen from the existential point of view, practice of the skills in the here and now takes on an imperative and liberating quality: nothing can change the past; the student can however learn to perform effectively in the present. A persistent use of the past, without the encumbrance of regrets or worries enables the student to approach his learning in the best possible frame of mind. Encounter techniques in the Life Skills Group, and continued contact with the world outside the group thrust the student again and again into the midst of his own learning, telling him, "This is you! This is life! Forget the good fairies, and don't blame the fates!"

But if the student must behave responsibly, how does the Life Skills Course meet the requirement for training in responsible behavior? If we grant all the foregoing, and assume that because of training in the Life Skills Course, the student acquires all the skills the course contains, the statement that the student uses the skills "responsibly" identifies a problem. This word suggests value judgments of some sort. Clearly, training which gave the students skills and no judgment as to their use, or gave no practice in their responsible use, would reflect a faulty design; the course design must identify the criteria for responsible use of skills, and provide practice in the application of the criteria.

In an extensive discussion of this matter, Introduction to Moral Education, John Wilson identifies five criteria which a man's opinions must meet to qualify as moral opinions. He says that moral opinions must be freely held; they must be rational; they must be impartial as between persons; they must be prescriptive, and they must be overriding. (Wilson, 1967, p. 77) Wilson's discussion provides a useful structure for an examination of the adequacy of the response of the Life Skills Course to the need for morality, or responsibility identified in the definition of the term, Life Skills. For present purposes, we assume that the first two criteria of moral opinions, viz., they must be freely held and they must be rational, explain themselves. When Wilson requires impartiality in an opinion as a third criterion, he requires the opinion to hold for everyone in all places; if an individual holds an opinion impartially, in Wilson's sense, he may not judge his own actions by one standard, and use another standard to judge the actions of someone else. When he requires the prescriptive quality, he says that the person holding the opinion morally, must take action as a result of his opinion; he may not only judge. In describing his fifth criterion, Wilson says that a moral opinion takes precedence over other opinions; the opinion has an overriding quality.

In what ways do the content and the processes of the Life Skills Course, providing for a "responsible" use of skills, meet these criteria for morality? Wilson's first two criteria for moral opinions, that they must be freely held and that they must be rational, derive from states within the individual. The Life Skills Course seems to respect these two criteria. With respect to the free holding of an opinion, Wilson's first criterion, the coaching process,acknowledges the place of the past experiences of the student by affirming his right to decide to use the new found skill. The course methods say, "We have an array of new behaviors which you may find helpful in your everyday life, but you must decide when, where and how to use this new skill." The structure of the lesson provides the student with opportunity to develop his own views and to express them. The evocation phase of the lesson deliberately encourages the expression of freely held opinions. In the application phase of the lesson, the student implements plans relating to his problems, and he can veto the plan if he finds it objectionable.

The design of the objective enquiry phase of the lessons aims at creating some rational basis for Wilson's second criterion, opinion and attitude formation,and the actions related to these opinions and attitudes. During this phase of the lesson, the student conducts an investigation of sources containing information relevant to the topic at hand. He makes his own judgment on the value of these and tests his developing opinions in the interactions with others in his group.

Wilson's third criterion for a moral opinion requires impartiality as between persons: an individual must see himself as others see him, and perhaps more important, must see others as he sees himself. The student needs the skill to sense the response of others to circumstances, to observe the changes in others as indicated by voice, gesture, posture, and word. He needs the skills to defer judging the reason for the change, and he needs the skill to enquire after the reason for the change. Furthermore, he needs the skill of questioning the effects of his own behavior upon others. How does the Life Skills Course meet these needs?

The coach receives training in practical behavioral analysis; he receives skill training in acting upon the meaning of his behavioral analysis. The early part of the course contains exercises which develop analytic skills in the students; the coach uses videotape recordings to help the students in self-assessment. Many lessons contain practice in the meaningful use of feedback. Exercises in the course require the use of role-play techniques, followed by analysis of events and feelings to help the students understand the reaction of others to a particular situation. The exercises of this nature aim at enlarging the student's perceptive powers. The activity assumes that a person can increase his understanding of others when he has these skills, and it assumes that he will act out of an increased consideration for others when he sees his reflection in their faces.

Wilson's fourth criterion for a moral opinion requires the opinions to prescribe an action. The Life Skills requirement for responsible use of the problem solving behavior as specified in the definition of a life skill relates to this criterion. The individual says to himself, "I have considered the basis for my action, its effect upon others, its relationship to my personal need and have decided to do it!" In the course, each lesson prepares the student for skill practice, an application. In that part of the lesson called the objective enquiry, the student examines the "facts," and considers their meaning in the context of his own needs and the effect of these actions on those around him. This seeking of objective knowledge provides him with a rational basis on which to act.

The responsible use of behavior also meets Wilson's fifth criterion, the requirement for an overriding quality to opinion, as set out in the definition. Wilson explains the meaning of his overriding quality by saying that the individual justifies his actions in relationship to the interests of others. When a person declares himself in action, he implicitly requests the judgment of other people. The submission of his action to the judgment of others invites them to judge his behavior as responsible. He then uses their response to affect and modify subsequent uses of his skills, applying once again the entire set of criteria in further development of his opinions and his further action.

The Training Methodology reflects the directions indicated by the objectives, the limitations implied by the definition of the term, Life Skills, the need to provide for an ease of skill transfer, the training needs of the students, and the need for the development of "en route" skills. The methodologies have a consistency with the concept of learning described earlier as complex interaction of cognition, emotion, and action.

Several factors determine the size of the Life Skills Learning Group of 12-15 students. The need for skill training, and the practice of "small" behaviors on which other larger skills depend require a rather smaller group. Furthermore, since people use Life Skills to express themselves, the use of new skills in effect means new self expression. A small group of people permits development of enough trust among members so that everyone but the most timorous has enough courage to test himself in new behavioral style. Groups of this size permit the coach to use feedback techniques, including the use of videotape recording. In a group of this size, the coach can provide for effective feedback, and the person receiving it has enough intimacy with the group to indicate the extent to which he can take feedback. A group of 12-15 students should contain a broad range of personality types and a broad range of personal skills. The range of personality types and their associated reactions gives the student a "cross section" of the society in which he lives; the group simulates the larger society surrounding the student. The coach can use the range of personal skills possessed by the whole group as a whole as an instructional resource; for example he can have one student model a desired skill for another student seeking to learn it.

The course meets the need for skill transfer through its content, its structure, and its methodology. The situations presented in the lesson have a validity in the lives of the students, representing as they do situations typical of those found by the students in their day-to-day lives. The role-plays and case studies are based upon actual experiences. The structure of the lessons contain procedures to help the student transfer his skills. Each lesson has five parts to it; in the fourth part, the *application phase*, the student uses his new found skill in a real life situation. As the group move to the fifth or *evaluation phase* of the lesson, the coach works with the group to assess the effectiveness with which the student completed the application phase. In order to complete the transfer process, the student teaches the skill he has just learned to another person. This procedure insures mastery of the skill cognitively and behaviorally; it also develops affective support since the student must internalize the values on which the behavior depends before he can effectively demonstrate it to others.

The learning group of 12-15 students permits the coach to attend to the individual needs of the students to a greater extent than could a larger group; in order to supplement the opportunity for individual attention which the small group offers, the coach has training in other small group techniques: group discussion, individual study, working in groups of two's and three's.

Summary. The Life Skills Course provides students with training in the use of problem solving skills in their daily lives. When students learn in the activities of the course, they show their learning in changed behavior and it results from a complex interplay of cognition, feeling and action. Students should express their feelings, and the Life Skills Course provides them with a vocabulary to do so. Learning adds new behaviors as well as changing old ones. The Life Skills Course deals with problems of the existential man in the "here and now." The emphasis in the definition of Life Skills on *responsible* use of behaviors, and certain training methodologies meet at least one set of criteria for moral education. The training methodologies reflect the directions indicated by the objectives and basic definitions.

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EVALUATING STUDENT PROGRESS IN A LIFE SKILLS COURSE

- M.J. Martin and R. Himsl

What skills does the student practise during the Life Skills Course? Does he perform the skills expected of him as stated in the lesson objectives? How committed is the student to use a new skill? What evidence does the student give that he has or will adopt the new skill? What skills does the student lack? What coach behaviors help the student acquire or improve his skills? Can the student describe the skills he practiced in a lesson? Can he describe the process he used, or how he used it? Does he adjust his behaviors to meet his goals? Does he transfer evaluative skills to situations outside the Life Skills Course? How quickly should the coach pace his instruction? When should he recycle skill practise? How does the coach assess the readiness of his students to handle problems with a high emotional content? Does the student view his progress realistically? Does the coach view the student's progress accurately? Should a supervisor intervene? Should the coach request special counselling for the student?

To monitor student development and to improve skill performance, the Life Skills Coach asks questions like the foregoing. He uses formal and informal measures to gather data to help him make decisions to promote student growth. Throughout the course, he asks, "On the basis of observed behavior, what can I do to cause improved skill performance in each student? How can I facilitate maximum cooperation among the students to help them accept and give help to one another?"

While the coach has interest in judging final product skills, that is, in knowing whether or not the student can perform a given skill, he has greater interest in measuring the process the student uses to acquire new skills. This gives the coach information that helps him promote greater proficiency even in the skills the student has when he comes to take the Life Skills Course.

The measures used in the Life Skills Course provide ample opportunity for evaluation to take place; an array of techniques exist for the supervisor, coach or student to use. Rather than relying exclusively on outside measures or judgments made by others, the course reinforces ways to help the student to use self-evaluation techniques and to make better use of and, in fact, request assessments as a means of changing his behaviors, even after he leaves the course.

Evaluation Measures Presently in Use	Brief Description of Measure	Type of Information Generated by the Data	General Type of Questions Answered by the Data	General Types of Decisions Possible	Information used for Decision-making by
Review Lessons "Explaining Life Skills to Others" "Setting Goals" "Applying for a Job"	These lessons emphasize information gained about self learned in the course. The student reviews the material and then uses it to plan his next activities. This provides a setting where the student must take a severe look at his skills - a most intense type of evaluation	Periodic assessment. Setting goals for next parts of course.	The student asks: How am I doing? What skills have I gained? Where do I go from here? What resources can help me? Should skill practise be recycled? Is the student ready to move to the next phase of the course? How well can the student handle his life problems? How motivated is the student? What does he want from the course?	Recycle Skill Practise Move on to next phase of course. Provide individual counselling. Refer student for counselling. Provide feedback. Plan tours or invite guests to widen horizons.	Student Coach Supervisor
Evaluation Lessons "Evaluating Membership on a Team" "Evaluating Problem Solving Skills" "Evaluating Employability"	Lessons making use of self, peer and group evaluation techniques to assess problem solving skill applicable to life problem situations and specifically in relationship to the world of work.	Assessment of problem solving and work skills. Plans for ways to use them and to improve them.	What skills has the student gained in the course? How do the skills fit in with the work skills he has? How can he make use of what he can do?	Vocational Choices Ways to maintain and improve skill development.	Student Coach Supervisor
Sociograms	A tally record of interaction structures. Can be diagrammed and analyzed in various ways.	Interaction patterns among group members in various settings.	What students does the student interact with? Who helps **whom?** In what situations? How many interactions does a student make? Does this pattern change?	Determine sub-groups for skill practise sessions - who can help **whom?** What outgoing student can work with what shy student?	Student Coach Counsellor

TABLE 1. Evaluation Measures used in the Life Skills Course

Evaluation Measures Presently in Use	Brief Description of Measure	Type of Information Generated by the Data	General Type of Questions Answered by the Data	General Types of Decisions Possible	Information used for Decision-making by
The lesson: Writing Tests	The students practise the Test Orientation Procedure and write certain tests chosen by the Life Skills staff.	Scores depending upon the tests chosen by the coach and his supervisor.	How do I compare with other people on these measures? What does that mean for my personal goals?	Change personal goals. Seek advice from counsellors. Expand range of vocational options.	Student.
Lesson Objectives	60 statements written in process-product terms identifying problem solving skills emphasized in each of the 60 lessons.	Expectation of student behavior Purpose of lesson	What skills will the student be expected to practise during this lesson/course? Does the student use the skills in the lesson objectives? Should skill practise be recycled? Should the student begin the next phase of lessons? Was the purpose achieved?	Repeat lesson Recycle skill practice Move on to next lesson or next phase Devise new exercises to emphasize similar skills	Student Coach Supervisor
Opportunity Response Scale (ORS)	A form on which the coach lists the skills taught and the dates on which the student responds at various levels of achievement	Levels of Skill Achievement Levels of Commitment to use or adopt the skill	What evidence does the student give that he has or will adopt the new skill? Do the students refuse to use the skill even with urging? (No response). Does the student respond only under constraint? (Constrained response). Does the student use the skill when the opportunity arises? (Voluntary response) Does the student teach the skill to others? (Teaching Response)	Provide more opportunity Provide more feedback	Coach Student Supervisor

TABLE 1. Evaluation Measures used in the Life Skills Course (continued)

Evaluation Measures Presently in Use	Brief Description of Measure	Type of Information Generated by the Data	General Type of Questions Answered by the Data	General Types of Decisions Possible	Information used for Decision-making by
Overcoming Skill Failure (OSF)	A form on which the coach lists the skill failures for individual students from lesson objectives or earlier lessons and then lists a Remedying Behavior the coach will use to help the student overcome the skill failure identified	Problems student has practising new skills Coach behaviors that hinder the student	During the lesson, did the student achieve the special objectives the course set? Did the coach's remedying behavior help the student succeed? What skills does the student lack? What coach behaviors help the student improve his skill?	Determine special objectives for individual students Seek outside help Change own behavior	Student Coach Supervisor Counsellor
Evaluation Sections of Individual Lessons	A time set aside after each lesson to sum up what was done, how it was done, and how it could better be done. The lesson structures activities to provide the coach with a variety of ways to conduct these sessions.	Review of what was done, how it was done and how it could be improved. Assessment of whether or not lesson objectives were reached.	Does the student know what he did, how he did it? Does he know how to judge his performance? Does he know how to adjust his goals? Does he know how to adjust plans? How realistic is he about his achievements and his goals? Should the skill practise of the lessons be recycled? How ready are the students to handle more skills? more complex content? more affective content? How ready are the students to move on through the course?	Repeat lesson Recycle Skill practise Move on to next lesson or phase Provide feedback to students Allow students to give feedback about lessons or coach Identify new lessons needed (content-wise)	Coach Students

TABLE 1. Evaluation Measures used in the Life Skills Course (continued)

Evaluation Measures. Table 1 describes the measures used in the Life Skills Course. It indicates the type of information generated by the data and suggests the decisions that might result from analysis. It shows who uses the various types of information.

The evaluation requires a precise understanding of the four elements of evaluation in training: the skill objective stated in words describing what the student will do as a result of the training; the measure which the instructor and student will use to describe the student's achievement of the objective; points of especial meaning on the measure; and the instructional decision which the coach makes on the basis of student achievement. The coach concerns himself first with the student's use of the skill, rather than with how well. Admittedly, it is hard to separate the two; however, some students accomplish a great deal just to use the skill, let alone perform it well. The coach therefore seeks performance of the new skill first, and then seeks proficiency.

In order to measure student performance, the coach uses the Opportunity Response Scale (ORS). The ORS has four criterion points: No Response, Constrained Response, Voluntary Response, Teaching Response. The No Response criterion needs little explanation: regardless of what the coach may do, the student does not use the new behavior. At the level of Constrained Response, the student practises the new skill under some sort of urging. The coach might ask him or coax him to use it; he might remind him that he promised to use the skill; he might even threaten him some way, or the group might put pressure on him to use the skill. If the student responds under constraint, the coach then has an assessment of his adoption of the new behavior. At the level of Voluntary Response, the student uses the new skill when the opportunity appears. If the group has just practised the skill of giving feedback, for example, the student operating at the level of voluntary response uses the new behavior when the chance comes along. The coach feels most secure that the students have adopted a new skill when they show the Teaching Response. In order to respond at this level, the student has probably said to himself, "I think this skill helped me so much that I want to show it to someone else." That means that he has to feel secure with it, and that he must know it well.

Each succeeding level of response, No Response, Constrained Response, Voluntary Response, Teaching Response, requires a greater commitment from the student than the preceding one. Certainly, the coach strives to bring his students to the level of voluntary response, realizing in his desire to do so that students may not move to this level as soon as they first practise the skill.

In order to keep tally of the skill development of the students, the coach prepares a Skill Development Record Book. On the basis of a survey of the Life Skills lessons, the coach organizes the skill record as indicated below using a separate record for each student. The column at the extreme left provides the coach with a precise record of the structured recycling of the skills which the lesson sequence provides, and the second column identifies the skill. The realization by the coach that the lesson sequence provides a structured setting in which students have added opportunity to use and teach the skills, enables him to modify his instructional behaviors according to student need.

Student's Record of Skill Achievement on the Opportunity Response Scale (ORS)

Student's Name ______________________________

Lesson Nos.	Skill Taught	Date	Date and Level of Achievement			
			No Response	Constrained Response	Voluntary Response	Teaching Response
8, 11, 13	Using the "why" skills					
3, 8, 11, 13	Identifying assumptions					
3, 6 8	Rank ordering					

The coach identifies the skill taught by reference to the lesson objective. The lesson objective usually contains two or more processes; the underlined process in the objective receives the emphasis in the lesson; however, the student has not achieved the lesson objective unless he carries out all of the processes described in the objective. Consider an example. Suppose that the lesson for a particular day describes this objective: "The student uses the 5WH system and the "why" question to name a personal goal." The student must use the 5WH system as one process, the "why" question as another, and he must name a personal goal as the other, in order to reach the lesson objective. Usually the coach seeks to have the students use each of the skills during the lesson; however, sometimes students do not respond right away, and the coach has to wait; certainly, they will not always respond at the voluntary level right away, and they cannot always teach the skill the very day they first practise it. Furthermore, the design of some lessons requires a period of time to pass before the student can apply some of the skills. Carefully kept records reward the coach with a clear picture of student growth and provide a useful basis for counselling students on their progress.

Overcoming Skill Failure. If the coach rated the student's progress, and did no more, he would have contributed little to the skill development of his student by such evaluation. As a coach, he wants to promote the student's development. Using this next form, as a sort of self discipline, helps him accomplish this.

Life Skills Evaluation Form - Overcoming Skill Failure

Lesson ________________ Date ____________ Coach ____________

Student's Name	Skill Failure	Coach's Remedying Behavior
Sam	Did not use eye contact	Model eye contract
Pete	Considered only one idea	Ask student to record ideas from brainstorming on flip chart

The coach uses the form in a post lesson analysis. He identifies a skill failure from the particular objectives of the current lesson, or he finds a student fails to use a skill he considered he had taught earlier. In either case, he describes that skill failure specifically; he prefers a description like, "Did not paraphrase an instruction" to "Did not understand what I told him;" he prefers "Did not use eye contact" to "Does not seem to pay attention." He enters those specific behavioral descriptions in the Skill Failure column opposite the student's name.

In like manner, the coach describes his own planned "Coach's Remedying Behavior." He writes "Will model eye contact for him" rather than "Try to get him to look around;" instead of a vague description such as "Encourage him to participate in the group," he writes a specific directive to himself such as "Ask him to contract with the group to speak out four times during the lesson." A daily scan of the skill development of the group using this form as his guide keeps the coach in close touch with the group membership. The commitment to action implied by entering his own behaviors in the column adjacent to the skill failure column provides the coach with a means of completing the evaluation cycle. In a sense, by completing the form, the coach makes a contract with himself to carry out the action specified. He accumulates the daily forms during the training course so he can study each student's growth in response to his own efforts. He uses the list as a check of the thoroughness with which he carries out his own plans.

Other Evaluation Procedures. Close attention to students' remarks about the course during the sessions and outside can indicate problems that students have with practising the skills required of them. The coach uses this information plus feedback about his own behavior to plan his program. The coach training course trains the coach to value and use this type of information rather than to consider it as criticism.

The coach watches his group for the development of limited interactions among a few members; this often indicates the development of structures within the group which inhibit the participation of retiring students. Sometimes, for example, the coach observes greater and more varied participation from students in the first and second phases of the course than he sees in the latter parts of the course, because by this time new patterns of behavior, which include the coach, have developed. A learning group should permit varied role participation and practise throughout its life. The coach therefore uses sociograms at regular intervals to identify the group structure, or uses a tally to record the participation, or perhaps most effectively of all, uses videotape regularly to record group interaction.

After the coach has collected all the data what does he do? He may give the group feedback and discuss new goals with them. He may recycle lessons. He may design new exercises for skill practice. He may seek the advice of a counsellor. He may use other teaching skills. Many situations which the course creates provide excellent opportunities for the use of skill training techniques. Warren describes these in his essay, "Behavioral Skill and Role Training Approach to Life Skills".

The concept of evaluation used in the Life Skills Course grows out of the action research approach used in developing the course: evaluation provides information for decision-making, stressing process of progress, not merely product assessment. This approach applies to teaching as summed up by Sheppard in, How to Be a Good Teacher, who says, "Teachers are people who change learners. . ... teaching has only taken place when learning has taken place ... teaching is measured by the effect the teacher has on the learner ... If a teacher attempts to teach a [student] to do something and after the attempt the [student] still cannot do it, the teacher has not taught it."

Summary. Life Skills Coaches evaluate student progress to increase the rate of behavioral change and to increase the variety of behavioral change as specified by lesson objectives. The evaluation process consists of two phases: a rating using an "Opportunity Response Scale" and a prescription for further action. The coach records his prescription for further action on a "Life Skills Evaluation Form - Overcoming Skill Failure."

EVALUATION OF THE LIFE SKILLS COURSE

- Phillip W. Warren & L. Arthur Lamrock

Description of Student Population

Some demographic data on the students enrolled on courses at Saskatchewan NewStart is given in Table 1. More detailed information with cross breaks on the categories for certain groups is given in Lamrock (1970). Because the intake criteria set depended on the major project or course to be tested, the demographic characteristics between intakes vary. In general there has been a deliberate attempt to include a variety of people from the "disadvantaged" (unemployed mostly) population within certain broad ranges and little screening of applicants because of the magnitude of their problems; however, we have not accepted people who act overtly crazy ("nutty") or who have severe physical handicaps (e.g., blind, deaf, paralyzed); the lower limit in intelligence for most courses, depending on the course under development, is a Raven Raw Score of about 35 to 40. The upper limit on education, depending on the course under development, is about grade 9 (tested by the Canadian Tests of Basic Skills). There has been an over representation of Indian and Metis people compared to the general population. Due to the original mandate of the NewStart Corporations, which started under the federal Department of Manpower and Immigration, the emphasis has been on adults and so very few students are in their teens. The following is a description of an actual group which underwent Life Skills Training at one time; although names have been changed, the general characteristics of the students and their problems have not.

Larry, age 40, married with 6 children, lives in a three-room semi-modern house. He has been a good worker but goes on drinking sprees occasionally and has been fired from his last three jobs. Sally, age 21, was placed in a foster home at four and has been in six foster homes since. At 17 she became a mother. After struggling to look after her child on her own, she gave him up for adoption. Jane is 35, married, with eight children. Her husband has only seasonal work. She decided she'd like to help out with the bills but couldn't find a job. She has seldom been out in public and is very shy. John is 50, a laborer with an excellent work record. His seven children have all done well in school. Recently his health has failed and he must find a less strenuous job. Harry, 35 with three children, lives common-law. He has spent a total

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TABLE 1: Biographical Data of Students initially enrolled on NewStart Courses

Intake		Sex		Marital Status				Av. # Dependent (Children)	Age					Race				Average Reported Grade	Average Raven Raw Score
		M	F	S	M & C.L.	Sep. & Div.	Other		below 20	21-30	31-40	41-50	50+	Indian	Metis	White	Other		
A - E	N=(148)	79	69	49	76	19	4		40	53	33	19	3	16	37	93	2		
	Average							1.9										7.6	37.2 (E only)
	%	52	48	33	51	9	3		27	36	22	12	2	11	25	62	2		
G - J	N= (55)	27	28	19	29	6	1		9	19	7	11	9	27	9	19	0		
	Average							2										7.9	41.9
	%	49	51	35	53	11	2		16	35	13	20	16	49	16	35	0		
K	N =(48)	27	21	13	26	7	2		10	17	13	6	2	11	13	24	0		
	Average							2.3										6.6	42.9
	%	56	44	27	54	15	4		21	35	27	13	4	23	27	50	0		
N	N=(44)	32	12	9	34	1	0		2	26	11	5	0	30	14	0	0		
	Average							2.5										7.0	45.8
	%	73	27	21	77	2	0		5	59	25	11	0	68	32	0	0		
TOTAL A - N	N=(295)	165	130	90	165	33	7		61	115	64	41	14	84	73	136	2		
	Average							2.1										7.4	40.3
	%	56	44	31	56	11	2		21	39	22	14	4	28	25	46	1		

of 12 years in prisons. Doreen, 24, deserted by her husband, has three pre-school children. Mary, 31, divorced with one child, is trying to kick the drug habit. Fred, 18 and single, has never held a job for more than a few weeks even though he knows all about everything; he owes $3,000. Paul is 27, single and just out on parole. He is motivated to change his ways. He wants a job and a girl as fast as possible. Pete is 20, sorry he quit school and now anxious to go on with his education.

Another source of information is given by comparing NewStart students with students who attend the Canada Manpower Training Program (basic education up-grading) at the Prince Albert Regional Community College. This comparison was done in November 1970 and again in March 1971. The results are presented in Table 2. The tests used are described on pp. 244, 245 and the actual tests are given in appendicies I, J, K, L, M. In general, Canada Manpower tends to refer clients considered to be of a higher training "risk" ("not-ready" is the official Manpower category) to NewStart rather than to the Regional Community College. The test data indicate that students attending NewStart have more attitudinal/personality problems than students attending the Regional Community College and accords with the impressions of Manpower personnel. Summarizing the data in Table 2, compared to the NewStart group, the Community College group is: significantly more assertive, experimenting, anxious, independent and mentally healthy (all measured by the 16 P.F.); is less externally motivated (measured by the Internal/External Scale); expresses a lower felt magnitude of problems in life (measured by the Life Skills Problem Check List); expresses less rigid opinions (measured by the Scale of Self Assertiveness, Rigor and Inertia) and shows a smaller difference score between real and ideal self (measured by the Self Inventory).

The pre-scores of the Prince Albert Regional Community College group were then compared with the post-scores of students who went through NewStart training and the changes are also noted in Table 2. Initially the NewStart group is significantly more negative than the Community College group on 8 of the 9 significant comparisons. After the NewStart group completed training they were retested and compared with the initial scores of the Community College group. In 8 of the 9 comparisons the NewStart group reduced the extent of the negative differences or felt magnitude of life problems and became significantly more positive while becoming more negative on the external motivation measure. This is an indication that NewStart training is moving the students,whom Manpower sees as "not ready" for standard up-grading, closer to the "ready" or acceptable level on these personality and attitude dimensions.

TABLE 2: Statistically Significant Comparisons of Pre-test Scores of Prince Albert Regional Community College Students (N=50) with Pre- and Post-test Scores NewStart Students (Intake K, N=23)

Variable*	Means (Raw Score)			"t" Values		Significance levels	
	Pre-scores		Post-Scores				
	PARCC	NewStart	NewStart	Pre	Post	Pre	Post
16 P.F. Questionnaire							
"E": Humble-assertive	2.9	2.2	2.4	2.3	1.7	.05	.10
"Q_1": Conservative Experimenting	4.7	3.9	4.5	2.6	.6	.05	ns
16 P.F. Derived Scores							
Anxiety	5.0	4.0	4.6	3.3	1.5	.01	ns
Independence	2.8	2.0	2.1	2.1	1.7	.05	.10
Mental Health	6.0	5.4	5.7	2.1	.9	.05	ns
Internal/External Scale: External Motivation	7.7	8.8	9.2	1.3	2.1	.10	.05
	(NewStart students became more externally motivated)						
Life Skills Probs. Check List: Felt magnitude of probs.	54.8	70.6	33.7	1.7	2.9	.05	.01
	(NewStart students reversed the comparative felt magnitude of problems)						
Scale of Self Assertiveness, Rigor & Inertia: Rigidity Scale	55.8	60.0	58.3	3.1	1.8	.01	.05
Self Inventory Difference Score: Real vs Ideal Self Concept	27.9	34.0	29.3	1.6	.4	.10	ns

*Tests described in paper on pp. 244, 245 ; see Appendix I-16 P.F.; Appendix J: Life Skills Problem Check List. Appendix K: Scale of Self Assertiveness, Rigor, and Inertia; Appendix L: Internal/External Scale; Appendix M: Self Inventory.

Evaluation Definition and Types

Definition of Evaluation. Evaluation has been defined in many different ways. For instance, Harris (1963) defines evaluation as "... the systematic attempt to gather evidence regarding changes in student behavior that accompany planned education experiences." While Cronbach defines it as (1963) "... collection and use of information to make decisions about an educational program." Wiley (1970), combining both these definitions writes "Evaluation consists of the collection and use of information concerning changes in pupil behavior to make decisions about an educational program."

In Wiley's terms evaluation involves four components: standards, objects, vehicles, and instruments. *Standards* are outcome criteria which consist of traits and behaviors and levels of these traits/behaviors considered desirable. *Objects* of evaluation are the instructional programs or procedures and their components which might consist of something as complex as an entire Life Skills program, or any specific part of it. The *vehicles* of evaluation are the carriers of the effects of the objects; students, teachers, classes or other collectivities are examples of possible sampling units; in the case under discussion, it is students. The *instruments* of evaluation are the indicants and tests of the behavior of the vehicles; the stimuli used for eliciting behavioral responses. Selection or construction of instruments is dependent on traits and behaviors established as important by the standards. In Wiley's words, "The main problem of evaluation, then, is to establish the *effects* of the *objects* on the *vehicles* by means of the *instruments*. The other element of the process is to compare these effects with the standards." All evaluation components and their precise description and measurement are necessary for the complete evaluation of the effects of a program. Where they are lacking or poorly defined, it is all but impossible to reach any clear conclusion concerning the efficacy of a program.

Formative and Summative Evaluation. Stufflebeam (1968) offers an educational evaluation model which distinguishes between "product" and "process" evaluation. Scriven (1967) offers a similar distinction between what he labels "summative" and "formative" evaluation. The product-summative phase evaluates the effectiveness of a project after it has run full cycle. Evaluation at this point determines whether or not the developed innovation has met its objectives. In contrast, the process-formative phase provides periodic feedback to those responsible for continuous refinement and development of methods, plans and procedures. The overall objective of formative evaluation is to identify and monitor, on a continuous basis, the potential shortcomings or weakness as well as strengths of a project and feed this information back into the project in a relatively short turn around period.

These two types of evaluation are not mutually exclusive or in conflict: formative evaluation does not stop before summative evaluation starts. Formative evaluation is continuous and should be carried on into the summative evaluation stage. Nevertheless, thinking about curriculum development in terms of summative and formative phases helps determine the most applicable evaluative techniques and data collection procedures.

Summative evaluation requires the level of control characteristic of experimental design; in contrast, formative evaluation does not require control over the assignment of subjects to treatment or that the treatment be held constant. Thus under formative evaluation the evaluator monitors the total situation by using the most sensitive non-intervening data collection devices and techniques obtainable on crucial aspects of the project. Such evaluation is multivariate and does not specify all the important variables before a project is initiated. Because curriculum development is continuous, formative evaluation aims at integrating a number of studies employing different methods of data collection in a total research study. Each of the studies may have special methodological problems but the flaws rarely coincide in all of them and conclusions can be reached by summarizing the results from each.

In general, it seems that evaluators have overlooked the opportunity to affect the directions of educational change by limiting their evaluation to final (summative) assessment and neglecting formative evaluation. Certainly summative evaluation is necessary, but formative evaluation identifies the need for revisions when the opportunities for revisions still exist. It seems better to extract what we can while projects are fluid than to wait for more definitive findings which too often cannot be used to implement changes.

The use of the term "experimental" in educational projects often does not refer to controlled manipulation, measurement and comparison of procedures and treatments, but to the investigation of innovative methods of human resource development (Warren, 1969). Assuming a continuous process in curriculum improvement, educational evaluation aims at an integration of research and development to provide a rational basis for evaluating the effectiveness of a training course in achieving its objectives.

Formative/summative evaluation integrates different methods into a total research study: direct observations create a global picture; surveys and standardized tests supply objective data to identify individual and group differences; case studies offer a connected sequence of events to help determine and explain individual and group changes; finally the experiment provides a controlled test of the effectiveness of specific variables, and the overall research/evaluation design provides for an interweaving of the various methods.

"Zones" of Evaluation. There are three major "zones" where evaluation takes place (see Figure 1). Evaluation Zones I and II occur while the course is still in progress and Zone III involves the follow-up evaluation.

Zone I: Study of Course Effects in the Learning Laboratory. The training environment provides a comparatively safe setting in which to acquire and use new skills and information. Within this environment there is an attempt to approach the "real world" by the use of such simulations as role playing and "games." "Formative evaluation" discovers whether or not the instructional methods produce the desired result on course, providing information on what works with whom, what additional training the coaches require, what revisions in the course must be done to produce the desired result (e.g., lesson changes, sequencing changes, added lessons, substituted lessons, needed training techniques, etc.) and other modifications while the course is going on. "Summative evaluation" provides information on the total effect of the course however modified it may have been.

Zone II: Applications in "Real Life". Evaluation procedures must also study the course effects outside of the learning laboratory conducted while the course is still in process. This field work, while difficult and time consuming, is necessary to check on any transfer of skills and knowledge acquired in the laboratory.

The ultimate test of the effect of the Life Skills Course involves how much application occurs outside the training context. Each lesson has an application phase which, especially later in the course, involves doing something "outside." This provides the initial test of the effect of the course. If there is no transfer of skills and knowledge outside the learning laboratory then the goal of the course has not been achieved. If there is no transfer during the course, then there is little likelihood that there will be transfer after course completion. Thus, data must be gathered from several sources as to how much transfer occurs in the various areas and hopefully on each lesson as appropriate.

Zone III: Post Course Evaluation - Follow-Up Study. No evaluation procedure can be considered adequate without follow-up of the effects of the course. Interview and evaluation procedures have been developed for the follow-up evaluation using the opinions of course graduates and thus we obtain their opinion of the impact of the course after given periods of time. If there is a heavy emphasis on the transfer of skills into the real world throughout the Life Skills Course, then it is hoped that the continued use of life skills will follow quite naturally and will not be a sudden transition from the safe learning environment to the hard realities of life. Thus, the success of transfer while on course to the post course transfer should be compared. This study involves considerable time and effort but is essential to any evaluation process.

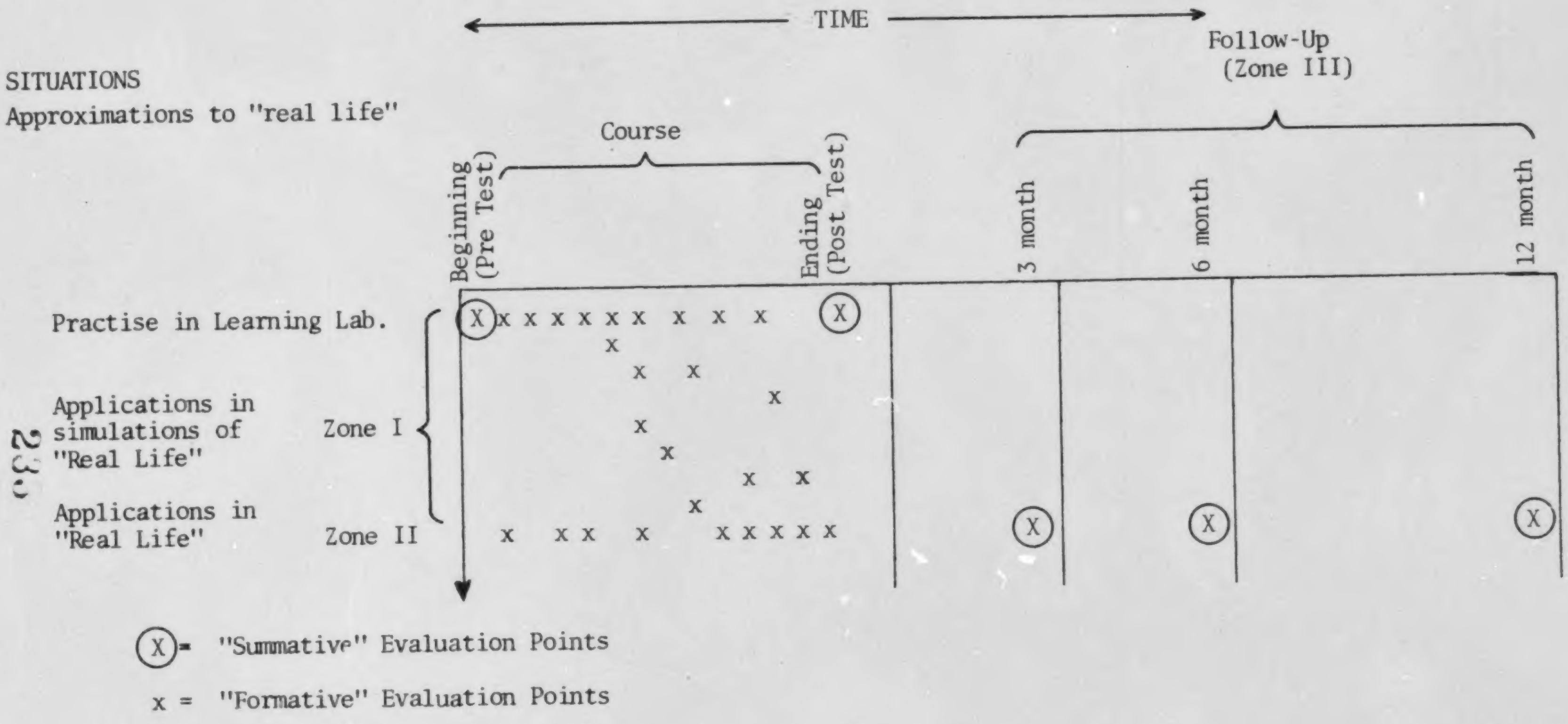
TIME
SITUATIONS
Approximations to "real life"
Course
Follow-Up
(Zone III)
Beginning
(Pre Test)
Ending
(Post Test)
3 month
6 month
12 month
Practise in Learning Lab.
Applications in simulations of "Real Life"
Zone I
Applications in "Real Life"
Zone II
Ⓧ = "Summative" Evaluation Points
x = "Formative" Evaluation Points

Figure 1: Points of evaluation of skill transfer across situations and time.

Formative Evaluation System of the Life Skills Course. The evaluation system developed for the Life Skills Course had as its principle objective the development of the course (i.e., it was formative and process oriented). Thus observation procedures, ratings, scales, check lists and simulations were used to assess student progress and skill levels so that course developers could refine and strengthen the course. As a result of struggling with the development of this system an attempt has been made to specify a more general system for developing evaluation systems discussed in another paper. (Lamrock, Smith and Warren, 1971).

Developmental Questions. Several questions with respect to the refinement and redevelopment of the course were formulated. The questions, while still at a rather general level, directed the data gathering process. Once the general questions were formulated then the data gathering methods could be related to the questions to see that all question areas were being covered. (see Table 4).

Life Skills Evaluation Methods and Procedures. Several methods for collecting data were developed and flow chart for each method was specified. It should be pointed out that each evaluation method used to monitor the process can also be used in a summative manner by plotting changes within the course and summarizing these changes. The flow charts and a more detailed statement of the purpose, criteria, decisions and procedures of each method are discussed in the earlier paper (Lamrock, Smith and Warren, 1971) and the course changes recommended as a result of the formative evaluations are discussed in Warren, Lamrock and Himsl (1971). Here the methods are listed with the statement of purpose and some of the procedures, the flow charts, and results.

(1) Observation by Research Personnel (see Appendix A) These observations provided an empirical basis for the description of the hypothesized Life Skills Process/Content Model described in the chapter, Life Skills: A Course in Applied Problem Solving. The observers used an Observation Report Form (see Appendix A) to record only observable behaviors: word, movement, facial expression, body attitude, associations with other persons in the learning group, etc. The observer did not rate the quality of a behavior; he noted only its presence.

Procedure: (see Figure 2) The research specifications for Intake K called for one observer of each training group for all training sessions. Due to personnel constraints, however, only one group was observed on a regular basis. Since the emphasis was on developing the methodology and validating the Life Skills Process/Content Model, it was felt that this activity would be useful even though the data necessary for making group comparisons could not be obtained.

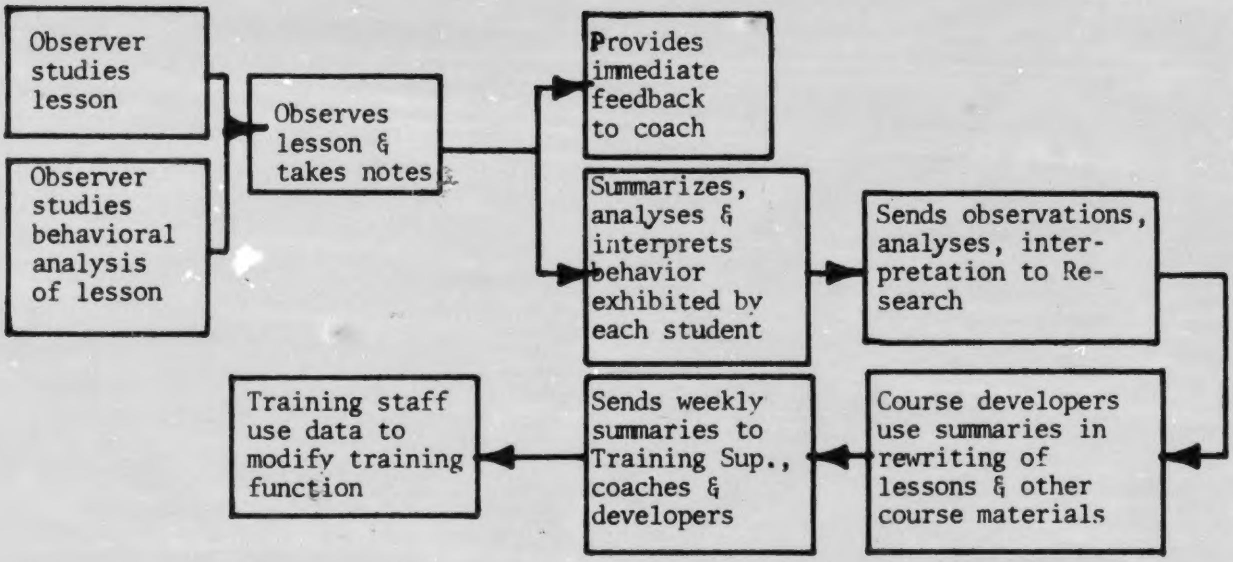
Observer studies lesson
Observer studies behavioral analysis of lesson
Observes lesson & takes notes
Provides immediate feedback to coach
Summarizes, analyses & interprets behavior exhibited by each student
Sends observations, analyses, interpretation to Research
Course developers use summaries in rewriting of lessons & other course materials
Sends weekly summaries to Training Sup., coaches & developers
Training staff use data to modify training function

Figure 2: Flow Chart for Observation by Research

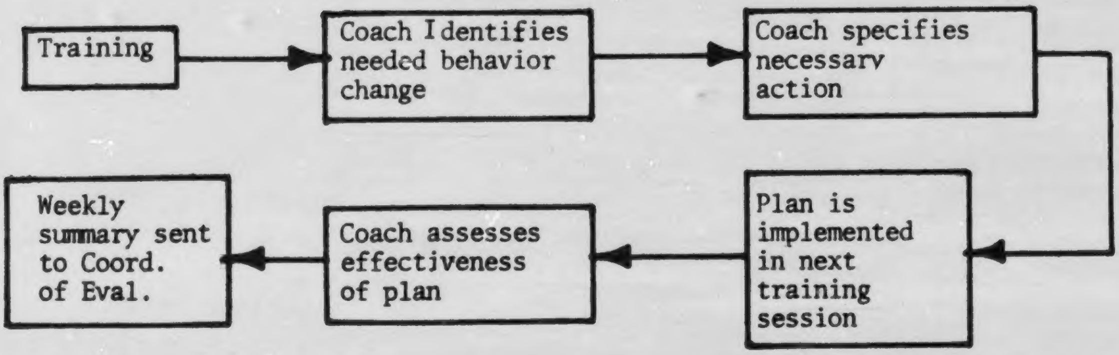
Training
Coach Identifies needed behavior change
Coach specifies necessary action
Plan is implemented in next training session
Coach assesses effectiveness of plan
Weekly summary sent to Coord. of Eval.

Figure 3: Flow Chart for Coach's Diagnosis/Prescription for Behavior Change

The observer watched all training sessions for one of the four subgroups of Intake K for a period of two months. During the sessions all the behaviors manifested by the students were recorded. These behaviors were then categorized along three dimensions of the Life Skills Process/Content Model.

Results. Table 3 summarizes the observers' weekly report for the period of November 23, 1970, to December 17, 1970. The observers attempted to classify each behavior on each of the three dimensions of the model. As can be seen in Table 3, 30.5% of the total observations were assigned to the Student Use of Knowledge Dimension, 38.7% to the Student Use of Group Dimension and 30.8% to the Problem Solving Dimension. Of the total of number of observations assigned the latter dimension, 25.8% were assigned to the "not relevant to problem solving" category. This seemed to indicate an observer inability to detect problem solving behaviors when used by other people. Attention turned to the resolution of this difficulty.

Four observers studied a videotape of a Life Skills group in a problem solving session, and using the same observation schedule, made independent classifications of the behaviors observed. Although the different observers found problem solving behaviors, they could not consistently classify them into one of the five broad categories depicted on the Model. As a consequence of this information, the Problem Solving Dimension, conceptually described as having 5 phases, was further defined by more precise behavioral descriptions of the problem solving behaviors which they subsume and the conceptual development of the course was enlarged to account for the apparent fact that the same behavior could at one time be used to define a problem, at another time aim at choosing a solution, and at still another time be a part of the application.

(2) Coach's Diagnosis/Prescription For Behavior Change (see Appendix B). The purpose of this study was to permit the coach to specify which skills need emphasis for each student, and to specify the technique to bring about the desired behavior. The instrument used for this was called "Facilitating Effective Group Behavior." (see Appendix B)

Procedure: After each training session the coach identified a "coach's remedying behavior" needed to bring about a behavioral change ("reason" on the form) in the student. He implemented his plan in the next session, after which he assessed its effectiveness. This form was completed each day during the first month of training (see Figure 3).

Results: The requirements of this form pinpointed the coaches' inability to diagnose skill failure and to devise a corrective instructional plan. It also revealed that the coaches often lacked the

TABLE 3: Results of Observers' Categorization of Behaviors According to the Life Skills Process/Content Model

Dimension	% of total responses (N=2034)
Use of Knowledge	30.5
cognitive	.5
affective	3.5
psychomotor	26.5
Use of Learning Group	38.7
safe	21.5
careful	12.2
risky	5.0
Problem Solving	30.8
not relevant to p/s	25.8
problem not dealt with	4.3
recognizes problem	.7
defines problem	0
chooses alternative	0
implements alternative	0
evaluates alternative	0

instructional skill of insisting on adherence to a behavioral contract. As a result, modifications of the coach training course place greater emphasis on the diagnosis of skill failure and introduce some techniques of behavior modification methodology, e.g. "the pin point", "set goal" and "record progress" sequence. Some preliminary work on this was done and material developed for further incorporation into coach training (Warren, 1972).

(3) Coach's and Observer's Evaluation of Group Development in Interpersonal Relations Skills (see Appendix C). The aim of this procedure was to evaluate and improve interaction of group members. This short rating form permitted the coach and other observers to quickly assess the general level of competence and skill of the group as a learning/helping group. This form had little use and it did not generate much information (see Figure 4).

(4) Observation by Lesson Developers (see Appendix D). In this procedure, the course developers assessed the effectiveness of course materials. An observation form/guideline was developed for the recording of the developers' observations of each lesson.

Procedure: After each session the observer recorded his comments on the quality of direction and general adequacy of the written materials. Several course developers observed Intake K. They recorded their observations and recommendations and sent the reports to the Supervisor of Development who directed their use in the lesson redevelopment (see Figure 5).

Results: It was found that reporting on specifics of the written materials (clarity, timings, sequencing, completeness of directions) became confused with reporting the coach's expertise in giving the lesson. One could identify comments related to the instructional plan itself, but often little was left when comments on coaching were extracted. It was recommended that the coach and observers distinguish between comments on coaching and those on the written instructional plan. Also, departures from the written plan were recorded in more detail so that the developers knew the reasons: e.g., group interest, special problems with the group, preference of the coach, directions not clear.

The observers' reports indicated that although the lessons provided skill objectives, frequently the level of achievement of the skills was not specific enough. Also the reports revealed a need for greater skill practice in order to facilitate transfer of the skills learned. As a result of this information the Life Skills lessons now include opportunities for the students to teach their newly acquired skills, in order to facilitate skill training transfer.

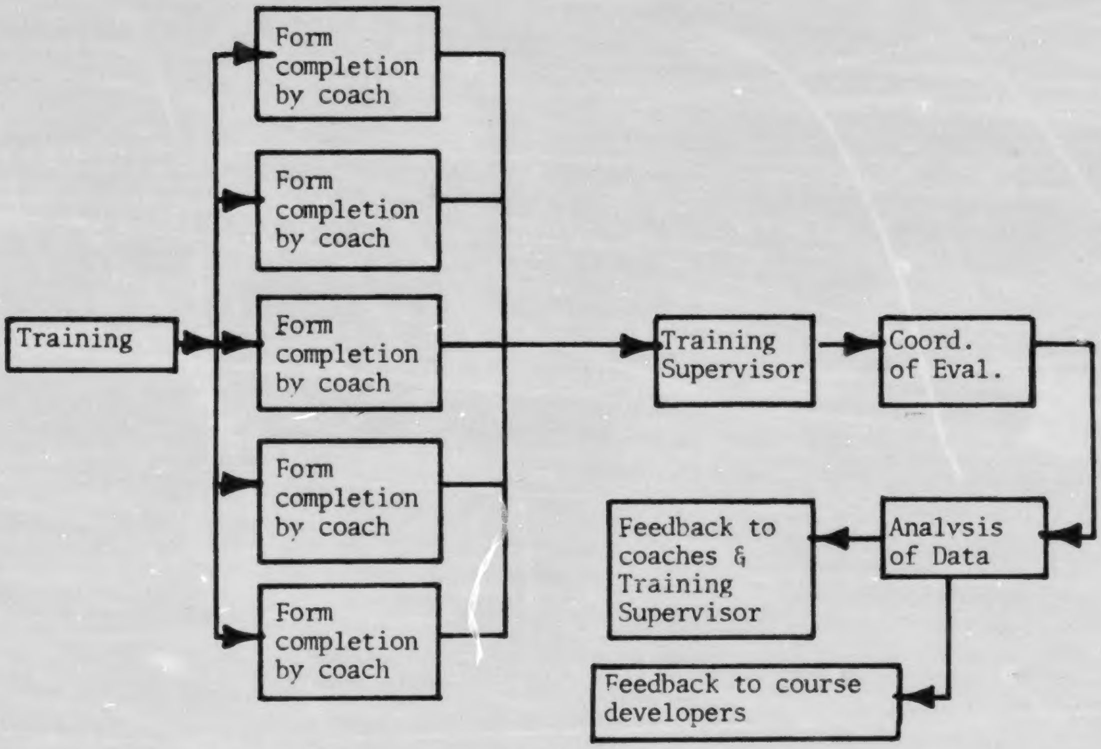
Training
Form completion by coach
Form completion by coach
Form completion by coach
Form completion by coach
Form completion by coach
Training Supervisor
Coord. of Eval.
Analysis of Data
Feedback to coaches & Training Supervisor
Feedback to course developers

Figure 4: Flow Chart for Evaluation of Group Development in Interpersonal Relations Skills

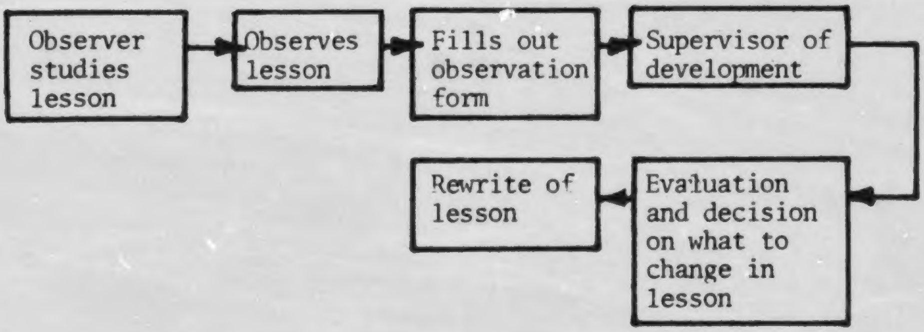
Observer studies lesson
Observes lesson
Fills out observation form
Supervisor of development
Evaluation and decision on what to change in lesson
Rewrite of lesson

Figure 5: Flow Chart for Observation by Lesson Developers

(5) The Training Supervisor's Summary of Coach's Daily Evaluation documented information resulting from meetings between the training supervisor and coaches; it provided a method for supervisors to record their evaluations. After each training session the coaches met with the training supervisor to discuss the progress of the group (see Figure 6).

Results: The supervisor's summary of these meetings was forwarded to the research section but these summaries were found to contain little information not gained by other methods and thus were discontinued.

(6) The Coach's Rating of Students (see Appendix E) was an attempt to document individual student progress over time.

This form includes a list of 31 behaviors considered important indices of both group and individual progress. The first completion of this form was three weeks after the beginning of the course (Intake K). The compilation of results permitted the coaches to compare the standings of individuals within the group. This report revealed to the coach where the groups needed more training. The analysis of the results of subsequent forms permitted the coach to assess individual and group progress. The coaches found this information useful in guiding their instructional emphasis (see Figure 7).

(7) The Progress Reports (see Appendix F) were used to obtain the student's evaluation of several aspects of course and his own progress and satisfaction, to obtain an evaluation of the student by the coach and to compare student and coach evaluations of the student.

Procedure: The students and coaches completed the progress report bi-weekly in all courses in which the student was registered. The student and the coach rated the student on a number of personal characteristics, and the student rated the coach, the training materials and his peers.

Results: Due to the large quantity of data elicited by the Progress Reports, (see Figure 8) a method of reporting the data to the Training Division in a summary form was required. Therefore, inter-correlations were performed between all items in order to determine which items could be averaged. It was found that all the items on which the individual rated himself were significantly correlated as were all the other items rated by the students (coach, training materials, peers) and the items on which the coach rated the individual. Thus, it was decided to average items within these three groups and represent them graphically. A method of doing this was devised and a specimen copy is given in Appendix F-3.

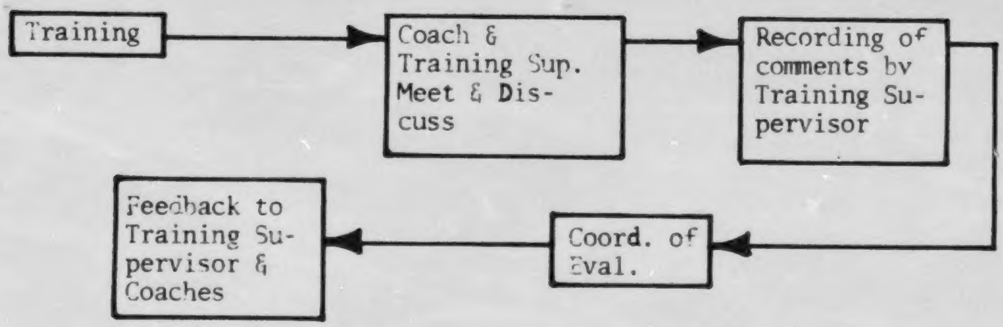
Training
Coach & Training Sup. Meet & Discuss
Recording of comments by Training Supervisor
Coord. of Eval.
Feedback to Training Supervisor & Coaches

Figure 6: Flow Chart for Training Supervisor's Summary of Coach's Daily Evaluation

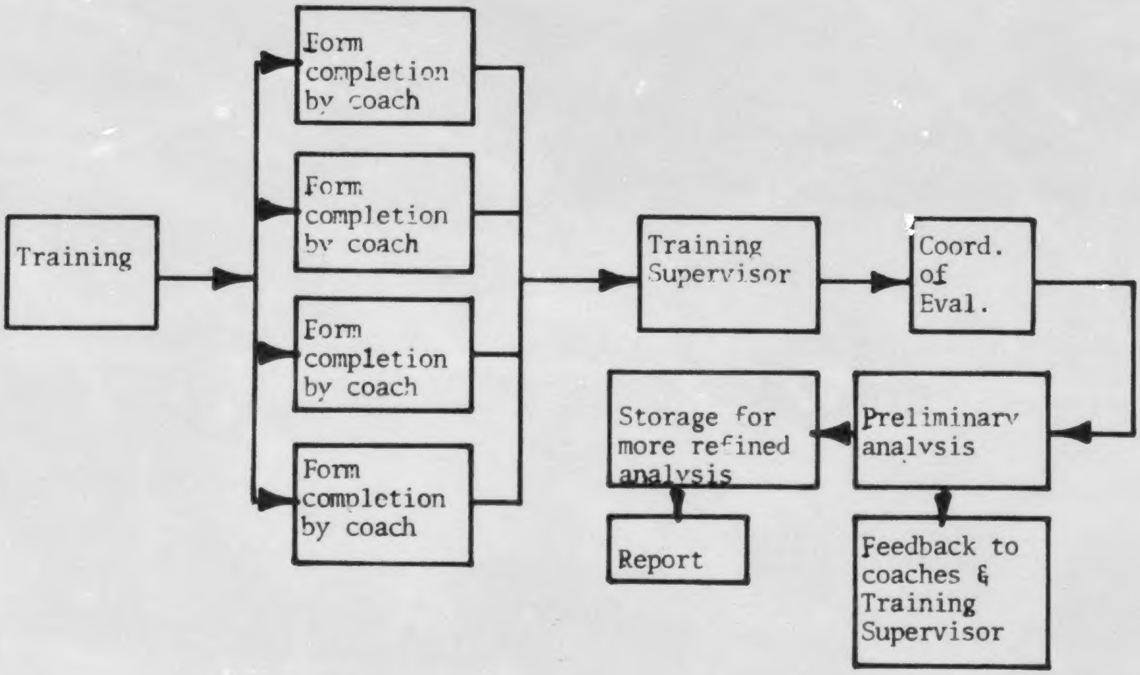
Training
Form completion by coach
Form completion by coach
Form completion by coach
Form completion by coach
Training Supervisor
Coord. of Eval.
Preliminary analysis
Storage for more refined analysis
Report
Feedback to coaches & Training Supervisor

Figure 7: Flow Chart for Coach's Rating of Students

The ratings performed by the students of Intake K were plotted and a meeting was held with members of the Training Division to discuss ways in which these graphs could aid the training function. The following suggestions were made: the Supervisor of Training examine the graphs for each student with the coaches; serious discrepancies between coaches' ratings and students' ratings or trends indicating progressively lower ratings by either the coach or the student should be discussed with the student; discussions with the students concerning the ratings should be documented and attached to the graph as a reference for future discussions. These are not done on a routine basis but only when problems are anticipated.

(8) Recording of Informal Remarks. This was planned to capture remarks about training progress made in an informal setting and therefore likely to escape the more structured methods of data collection. This was never implemented and therefore did not yield any information (see Figure 9).

(9) The Rating of the Interview of the Group (see Appendix G) was to provide a means for a skilled interviewer to evaluate the skill of the coach and the progress of the group using the whole group's evaluation of these two areas.

Because of the difficulties of observing all groups of Intake K, other methods were devised to obtain comparisons of the possible effects of coaching styles on group progress as required by development question f (see Table 4). For this purpose an interview of each group was done by the Supervisor of Training for Life Skills. The suggested interview guide is contained in Appendix G. These instructions, together with the form used for the ratings (Appendix C 2-3 & G 5) served as the definition of the dimensions to be assessed.

Method: The Training Supervisor was provided with the interview guide and the rating forms and instructed to devise a group interview which would last no more than 1 1/2 hours and which would provide an in-depth probe of the designated dimensions. This interview was done on the afternoon of December 23, 1970 with two groups. In both cases the interview was done in a smooth and probing manner and succeeded in covering the required areas thus allowing meaningful ratings to be made. Three observers watched the interview from the observation room and made notes and did their ratings there. The interviewer (Supervisor of Training), made his ratings after both interviews were completed. In addition, each coach watched his group being interviewed and also did the ratings although these are not used in the analysis (see Figure 10).

Results: The attempt was made to measure the extent to which the two groups were rated differently by the 4 raters on the 9 dimensions. The

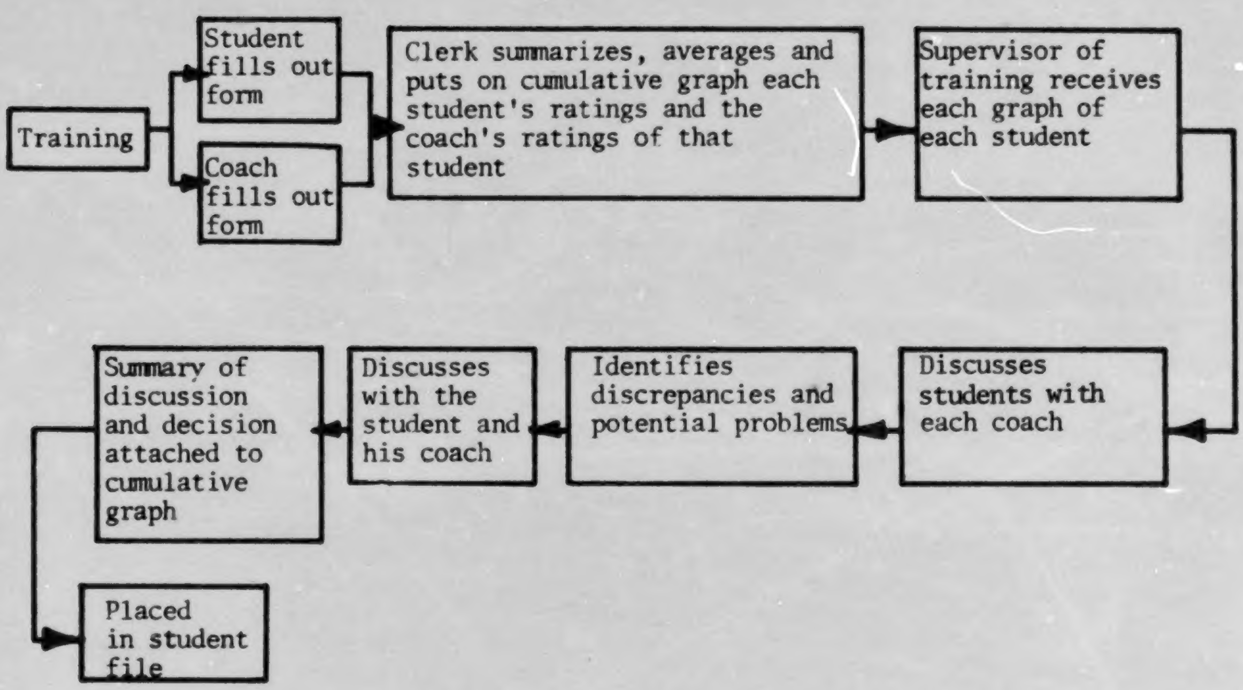
Training
Student fills out form
Coach fills out form
Clerk summarizes, averages and puts on cumulative graph each student's ratings and the coach's ratings of that student
Supervisor of training receives each graph of each student
Discusses students with each coach
Identifies discrepancies and potential problems
Discusses with the student and his coach
Summary of discussion and decision attached to cumulative graph
Placed in student file

Figure 8: Flow Chart for Progress Reports

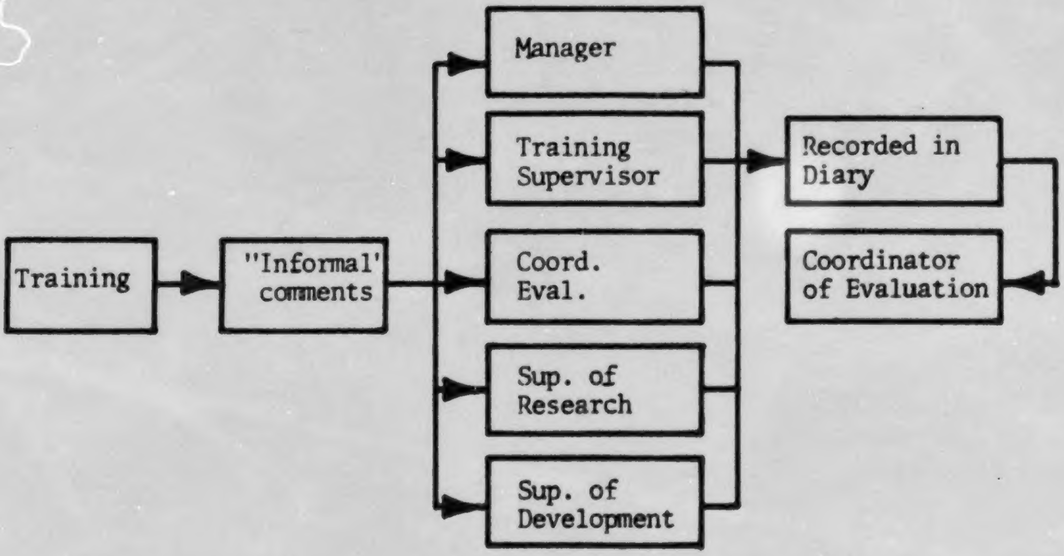
Training
"Informal" comments
Manager
Training Supervisor
Coord. Eval.
Sup. of Research
Sup. of Development
Recorded in Diary
Coordinator of Evaluation

Figure 9: Flow Chart for Recording Informal Remarks

statistical test used was the Mann-Whitney U test (a non-parametric equivalent of the "t" test) and although the analysis is not strictly appropriate it provided a rough indication of whether or not these two groups are rated differently. The hypothesis tested was that "teacher style" group and method was equal to or better than the "Regular Life Skills" group and method as measured by these ratings. This was the case and it was significant at the 10% level or better on each dimension.

Interpretation: The meaning of these results was ambiguous. The study gathered data to answer the development question f (see Table 4) regarding using a "teacher" style of coaching vs the present Life Skills coaching method. Assuming no other difference between groups and equally competent coaches, the data supported the idea of initially providing a didatic style of coaching. This interpretation was made ambiguous by complicating factors: two coaches of different sex used two styles on two different groups. Any one of these singly or in combination could produce the differences. In fact, the two groups were initially significantly different on three derived scales of the 16 PF: the group rated higher was also significantly less anxious (means of 4.6 vs 5.2, t=2.15), more mentally healthy (5.6 vs 4.6, t=1.85) and showed greater capacity to learn (6.2 vs 5.7, t=2.11). This fact alone could produce the rating differences observed in this study. In addition, the two styles of coaching did not differ so much on directiveness as in type of directiveness. The general impression was that the female coach was more subtle in her directiveness whereas the male coach was more direct, overt and obvious. The most that could be concluded was that an initial didatic approach to life skills was not detrimental to group development and was compatible with the desirable outcomes described in the form "Evaluation Form For Group Development: Interpersonal Relations Skills" (see Appendix C). As a result of the above information it was concluded that the coaching style could become more overtly directive, requiring the students to do the activities and use the skills in and out of class, but coaches needed to be trained for this. The use of the group interview method for assessment has many drawbacks from a pure assessment point of view. However, with a skilled interviewer it could be quite useful to provide a supervisor with a comparative assessment of groups and coaches and the approach could be usefully incorporated into a supervisor training program.

(10) The Simulated Group Problem Solving Test (see Appendix H) sought to measure the adequacy of the Life Skills Course in developing problem solving skills and to provide a diagnostic technique which can be used to develop problem solving skills in students.

This was a second evaluation method developed to assess the comparative progress of groups. Again, this was done since observation of all groups was not possible and some method was needed to measure progress. In addition, the technique could be useful one to incorporate into the course format as a periodic progress check.

Method: On Thursday P.M., January 7, 1971 each of the Life Skills groups were presented with the instructions and case study (see Appendix H 1-4) as a test of their individual and group problem solving skills. In addition, for comparison, the matched control group was tested on Wednesday evening, January 20, 1971 and were told that this test was given to the training groups at NewStart to see how well they could do without any training. They were then treated like the training groups. The situation is described in the instructions handed to the groups and read (Appendix H 1-2). Any questions they had were answered and when the groups were satisfied that they understood what was required of them the case study "Fred" (Appendix H 3-4) was handed out to them. Each group was VTRed and the tapes were to be analyzed by two raters on the scales in Appendix H 5-10 (see Figure 11).

Results: The formal analysis of the tapes using the scales and descriptors developed was not done to completion since all groups performed so poorly that virtually no problem solving behaviors were exhibited. Informal analyses were made of the tapes by various people and a meeting was called to view, analyze and develop remedying behaviors for coaches to try to make their groups more skillful. As a result of this test the training methods in helpful and problem solving behaviors were refined and re-conceptualized with lessons added for this purpose. Also the technique developed for evaluation was refined with several improvements in the evaluation instrument.

(11) Pencil and Paper Tests (see Appendices I through M) These were used to isolate student characteristics related to progress and to document personality/attitude changes thought to be due to the effects of the Life Skills training. This will be discussed in a later part of the paper (see Figure 12).

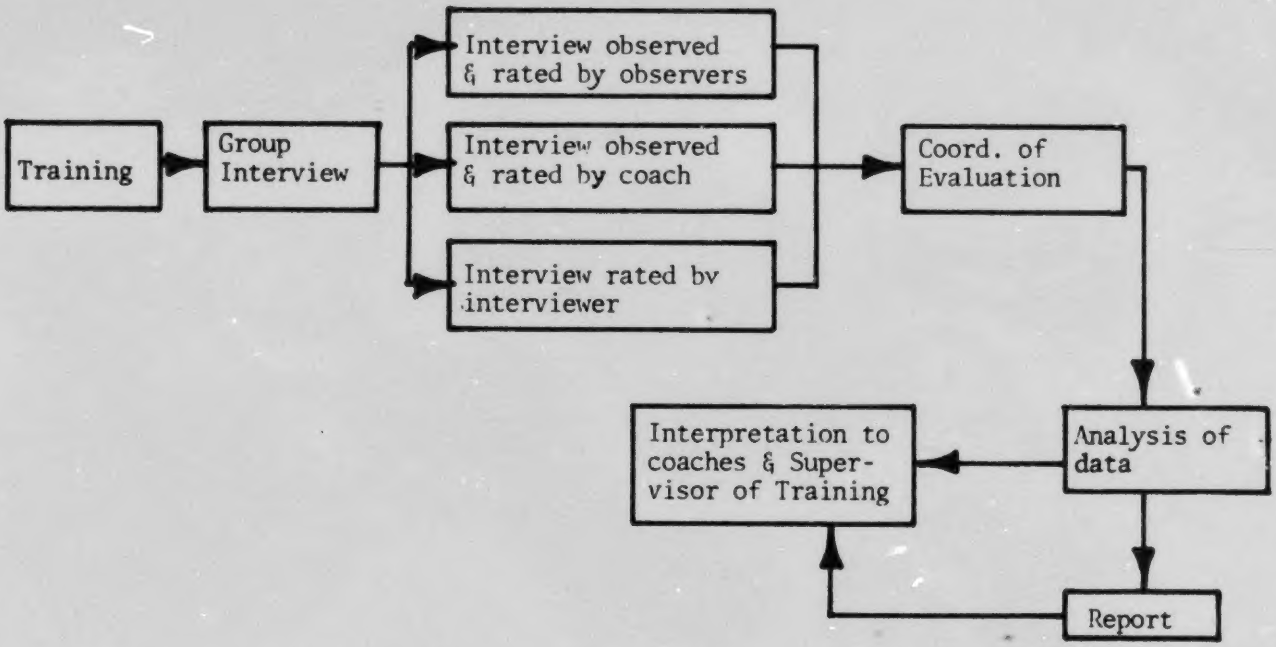
Training
Group Interview
Interview observed & rated by observers
Interview observed & rated by coach
Interview rated by interviewer
Coord. of Evaluation
Analysis of data
Interpretation to coaches & Supervisor of Training
Report

Figure 10: Flow Chart for Rating of Interview of Group

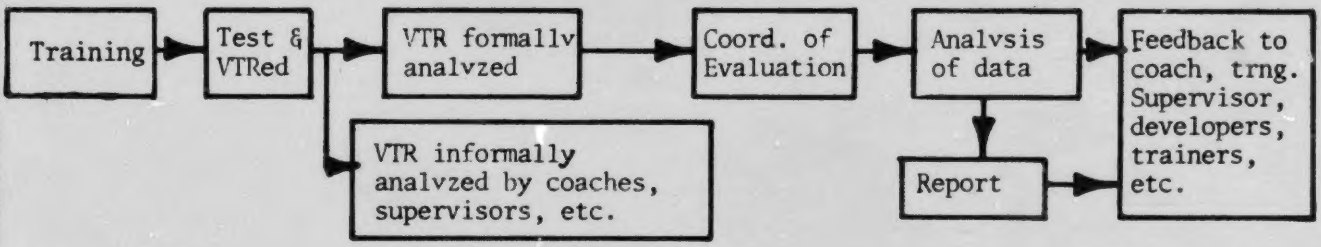
Training
Test & VTRed
VTR formally analyzed
VTR informally analyzed by coaches, supervisors, etc.
Coord. of Evaluation
Analysis of data
Report
Feedback to coach, trng. Supervisor, developers, trainers, etc.

Figure 11: Flow Chart for Simulated Group Problem Solving Test

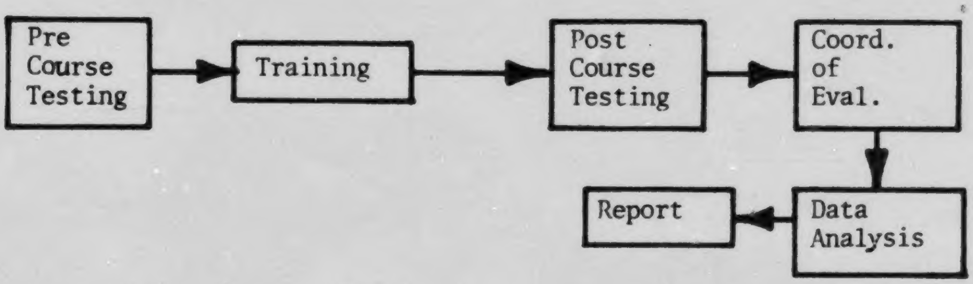
Pre Course Testing
Training
Post Course Testing
Coord. of Eval.
Data Analysis
Report

Figure 12: Flow Chart for Pencil & Paper Tests

TABLE 4: Relationship Between the Developmental Questions and Evaluation Procedures

	EVALUATION PROCEDURES									
	Observation	Diag./Persc.	Gr. Develop.	Lesson Eval.	Training Sup.	Rate Students	Inf. Remarks	Gp. Interview	P & P Tests	Sim. Prob. Solv.
DEVELOPMENT QUESTIONS	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)
a. Which behavioral changes specified for the students actually occur as a result of the course?	✓	✓	✓	✓		✓		✓	✓	✓
b. What behavioral changes occur as a result of the course, but are not specified in the objectives?	✓	✓	✓	✓		✓	✓	✓		✓
c. In what respects does the L/S Course fail to provide opportunity for students to achieve the specified behavioral changes?	✓	✓		✓	✓		✓			
d. What changes specified for the course are a function of time (no training?)									✓	✓
e. Does academic upgrading only result in the same behavioral changes as those specified in the L/S Course combined with the Basic Education?									✓	✓
f. Assuming that L/S students have expectations for a "traditional learning setting," will provision of such a setting result in more efficient development of specified behavioral change?	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
g. Do the techniques of skill training produce specified behavioral changes more efficiently that techniques specified in L/S?	✓	✓	✓		✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
h. In what ways does the precision required for implementation of skill training refine the definition of the behavioral objectives in the L/S Course?	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓		✓	✓		✓
i. In what ways do the written lesson materials fail to give adequate guidance to the coach for effective lesson implementation.	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓		✓			
j. What skills do the coaches lack in order to objectively achieve behavioral change in students?	✓	✓		✓	✓		✓			

Summative Evaluation of the Life Skills Course.

General Problems: In general the summative evaluation is inadequate since it is limited to proximal effects as measured by personality and attitude measures (relative "soft data"). The Life Skills Course has not been tested independent of the Basic Education Course except in one trial done in Moose Jaw with 8 students (that is, practically all life skills students have taken basic education upgrading at the same time). At this time we are conducting a study whereby students begin with either full time Life Skills or full time Basic Education and then take the other course (i.e., LS then BE vs BE then LS sequences of courses, each course taken full time rather than the usual half day of each). This will provide further data to assess the effects of Basic Education on Life Skills measures and will test in a more direct manner what Life Skills alone does. The more distal (3 month follow-up) effects again use relatively "soft data" -- the student's own opinion and assessment of the course impact gained through interviews. For most of the analyses of the course the curriculum was in constant revision and a fairly complete version is now in use.

With Intake K we began gathering data from various comparison groups such as the Canada Manpower Basic Education Upgrading course at Prince Albert Regional Community College, comparative groups from the NewStart population who receive no training but receive testing, test-retest comparisons on NewStart groups who receive training (i.e., the group takes the various tests about a week apart without formal training intervening). This data will provide us with assessments of the impact of Basic Education training on Life Skills measures, the effects of test sophistication on test score changes and an assessment of statistical regression effects. While most of this data is available it has not been analyzed since all our data are in the process of being prepared for a large scale computer analysis at which time many of the questions will be answered which at present must remain problematic.

Does the Life Skills Course "Work"? In a sense this is not an appropriate question and at any rate we can not answer it with "hard" data. It is necessary to ask more pointed questions about what works and what does not and with whom since "it" certainly "works" for some students. More accurately some students derived a great deal of benefit from the course as seen by themselves and (if we are lucky to obtain this information) by others (manpower or welfare counsellors, parole officers, judges etc.). What "works" most consistently is the increased ability of students to communicate more effectively with others and improve their ability to express themselves clearly. If this course "worked" with everyone in the intended population of "disadvantaged" it would be nothing short of a miracle. When the first author became a member of the Life Skills

Division in the Fall of 1969 he commented to this effect: "You realize that what we aim to do is impossible, but why not give it a try anyway? Many 'Great Minds' have struggled and failed to do what we are trying to do. If we fail, we shouldn't be too surprised. However, just because it's impossible is no reason not to try. Who knows? We might succeed!" Thus when people ask "Does it work?" we answer, "We have evidence that it does with some people. Anyway, here's what we've struggled and come up with. See what you can do with it. Good luck! We have worked hard and developed good and promising things that others will find useful. We attempted to solve an impossible problem and have not performed our miracle. However, this should not bother unless your self image is dependent on being a miracle worker."

Below is an inventory of the factors which reduce the probability of success of the Life Skills Course:

(1) Adult students have many prior years of a set way of life and accumulated and reinforced ineffective behaviors.

(2) The students are usually, at NewStart, not self-selected, i.e., they are non-volunteers for the Life Skills Course.

(3) The students have, for the most part, low verbal-cognitive skills and interests; they are low in socio-economic-educational status; they have low social-emotional health; they have long standing multiple problems.

(4) The aim of the course is to change the behavior of students in areas of life highly resistant to change, since they imply and require changes in self-concept and long standing habits of thought, feeling and action.

(5) The changes must not be confined to training but must transfer to the lives of students outside and after training. Thus, even if change is produced in training, it may be ineffective or non-transferable to other settings due to the different reward/punishment contingencies. In other words, it might be necessary to change the total interpersonal context of the student to achieve the desired goal.

(6) The amount of control the training setting has over the students is rather low when compared to the student's general life situation. In general, the context within which training takes place requires a reliance on "intrinsic" reward and motivation and a better, more effective strategy would be to initially rely on "extrinsic" motivation (i.e., control the reward/punishment contingencies in

training) and then phase into the "intrinsic" or self-rewarding methods. Unfortunately, the level of functioning of the typical student is so low that his behavior is more likely self-punishing. To break this vicious cycle it may be necessary to apply considerable more control over the reinforcement contingencies than is thought desirable in the usual training setting.

(7) Minimally trained people have been used to implement course objectives which have eluded many highly trained helping professionals.

(8) At best the course, as described in the model and the lessons, has had a 50% implementation. The last revision of the course has just recently been done, and so a final version, with all the required resources for the coach, will soon be available incorporating changes based on wide experience.

(9) The course runs for 3 hours per day for approximately 4 months. In this time it tries to modify, in significant and fundamental ways, a life time of mislearning and error.

(10) To the extent a typical school-learning model is used it will fail. The model must be behavior change. Thus, trying to deal with all problems in all areas of life will lessen the possibility of producing a fundamental change in some area for some students. There is a danger of trying too much instead of focusing one problematic area.

(11) Since Saskatchewan NewStart is in the business of developing and trying programs, the Life Skills Course implementation has suffered from the requirement to try out every lesson so that it may be observed, whether or not the lesson is relevant to students.

The above 11 considerations, realistic and true though not encouraging, converge on the course as it has been tried thus far and the cumulative impact produces a very distinct feeling of impossibility. Given the above considerations, what evidence is there that the course does anything?

Video tapes are available of students discussing what they gained from the Life Skills Course and they contain evidence that some students gained a great deal by their own estimation. These records contain evidence that other people (e.g., judges and other officials) think some students have gained some ways--mostly interpersonal and communication skills. Exit and follow-up interviews reveal that some students have almost literally been saved, both in their personal opinion and in the opinion of their manpower or welfare counsellors. Thus, there is evidence in the form of "testimonials" of the efficacy of the course in some areas. However, for many of the course objectives the evidence is slight or absent; a not too surprising result, given the 11 factors militating against success listed above. The overall, inclusive effects of the course are discussed in the next two sections based on the relatively "soft" data of the student's self report on various instruments and in interviews.

Pre/Post Course Changes in Measures of Personality and Attitude.

Description of the Measures. A number of tests were identified and developed which were considered useful in determining possible personality and attitude changes and which appeared relevant to the global objectives of the Life Skills Course. Since the course objectives changed and became more specific as the course was developed these measures were selected to be of general relevance. It would now be possible, but very time consuming, to develop measures of course outcome based on more explicit objectives.

Table 5 provides the list of tests/scales used and Appendixes I through M provide more information and, except for the 16 P.F., actual copies of the measures.

The 16 Personality Factor Questionnaire, Form E (low verbal form) measured aspects of personality which the course attempted to change. Since the test purports to measure fairly stable personality factors, this should make any obtained changes more likely due to treatment rather than the result of the testing procedure, assuming regression to the mean effects from matched or randomly allocated non-treatment control groups do not show significant changes. See Appendix I for definitions of the Personality factors. (Catell, Eber and Tatsuoka, 1970).

The Scale of Self Assertiveness, Rigor and Inertia (SARI), was adapted for low verbal people from three tests: Rokeach's (1960) "Dogmatism Scale" (Self Assertiveness), Gough and Sanford's (1952) "Rigidity Scale" (Rigor), and a measure of attitude toward mobility (Inertia). These three measures are combined in one test and the items written to require a lower level of verbal ability than the originals. Each of the items are responded to on a four point scale from Strongly Disagree to Strongly Agree (see Appendix J).

The Life Skills Problem Checklist (LSPCL), developed by Saskatchewan NewStart uses additional items from a similar measure used by Nova Scotia NewStart. It consists of brief statements of 110 problems in the areas of family, job, leisure time, community and self. Each problem is rated on a 4 point scale from 0= "this is not a problem" to 3= "this is always a problem". The score is the sum of the checked problems times their magnitude and measures something like the degree of felt magnitude of life problems. (See Appendix K).

The Internal/External Scale is from Rotter (1966) and measures the extent to which people are motivated by their own initiative and actions (internal motivation) or feel that their destinies are controlled by external events. There are two separate scores, one for internal and one for external. (See Appendix L.)

The Self Inventory involves a semantic differential scale (Osgood, Suci and Tannenbaum, 1957) attempting to measure real and ideal selves and the discrepancy between the two ratings. Thus, the student rates 24 bi-polar adjectives on a 7 point scale according to "Me as I Am" (real self) and then according to "Me As I Would Like To Be" (Ideal self). The magnitude of the discrepancy between these two ratings (Difference Score between real and ideal self images) is used as a rough index of maladjustment. (See Appendix M.)

Use of all tests and scales yields 77 possible scores: 16 personality primary factors, 6 derived factors, Dogmatism, Rigidity, Mobility, LSPCL magnitude of problems, Internal motivation, External motivation, 24 ideal self ratings, 24 real self ratings and the real-ideal difference score.

Description of Pre/Post Course Change Trends Across Intakes. Table 5 provides the preliminary data and format to be used in a complete version of the analysis of trends. Eventually all NewStart intakes will be included and a measure of the significance of the trends will be provided. The information in Table 5 compares only 3 intakes (trials or replications of the Life Skills/Basic Education combined programs) and the comparison group at the Prince Albert Regional Community College (receiving basic education upgrading only). Table 6 summarizes the data in Table 5 classifying the variables according the consistency across intakes and the significance of results, cross breaking this against the trends emerging in one comparison group from Prince Albert Regional Community College.

Table 7 gives the test results of the immediate pre-post course effects for three independent trials of Life Skills plus a comparison group at Prince Albert Regional Community College which received no Life Skills. Current preparations of data for computer analysis will permit comparisons across nine independent trials (replications) of the Life Skills course with additional information on the effects of taking the tests a second time without training (test-retest effects of regression and test sophistication) and further studies of the effects of basic education training on Life Skills measures. With this added information we can state with greater reliability what Life Skills training contributes to improved attitudes and self concept over and above test sophistication, regression and basic education effects.

TABLE 5: Personality & Attitude Tests (Raw Score): Pre/Post course changes compared across intakes

Test/ Factor/ Scale	Intakes* G-J n=50 Means Pre	Intakes* G-J n=50 Means Post	K n=23 Means Pre	K n=23 Means Post	N n=28 Means Pre	N n=28 Means Post	Trends across Intakes	# Agreements with trend out of N intakes (#/N)	# Significant Agreements	# Significant Disagreements	Comparison group for Intake K, N=14 Pre	Comparison group for Intake K, N=14 Post	Agreement with training group trends	Significance
16 PF Test														
A:	4.9	5.2	5.0	5.4	4.4	4.6	more outgoing	3/3	0	---	4.3	4.4	same	no
B:	6.1	6.5^c	6.0	6.1	6.1	6.7	more intelligent	3/3	1	---	6.1	6.5	same	no
C:	4.6	4.2^b	4.2	4.6	4.4	5.0^c	more stable	2/3	1	1 more affected by feelings	4.3	4.0	opposite	no
E:	2.3	3.1^b	2.0	2.4	1.9	2.1	more assertive	3/3	1	---	1.6	2.2	same	no
F:	4.5	4.6	3.8	4.6^b	4.0	4.1	more happy go lucky	3/3	1	---	3.6	4.1	same	no
G:	6.3	5.6^a	5.9	5.9	6.0	6.0	no change-expedient vs conscientious	2/3	0	1 more expedient	5.5	5.[illegible]	more expedient	no
H:	2.3	2.9^c	2.6	3.4	2.2	3.4^c	more venturesome	3/3	2	---	1.8	2.4	same	no
I:	4.3	4.5	3.8	4.5^b	3.1	3.6	more tenderminded	3/3	1	---	3.2	3.5	same	no
L:	2.9	3.3	2.7	3.0	3.2	3.3	more suspicious	3/3	0	---	2.3	3.3	same	no
M:	3.5	3.4	2.6	3.3^c	3.2	3.2	no trend	0/3	0	1 more imaginative	3.1	3.4	more imaginative	no
N:	4.3	4.5	4.5	4.3	3.7	4.4	more shrewd	2/3	0	0	4.1	3.7	opposite	no
O:	5.4	4.8^c	5.1	4.7	5.1	3.9^c	more self assured	3/3	2	---	5.6	5.7	opposite	no
Q1:	4.3	4.7	3.5	4.5^c	4.3	4.4	more experimenting	3/3	1	---	4.5	4.5	no	no
Q2:	3.2	3.0	3.1	2.7	3.3	3.4	more group dependent	2/3	0	---	4.2	4.6	opposite	no
Q3:	4.8	4.8	4.9	4.0	5.3	6.4^b	no trends	0/3	---	1 more controlled	4.3	4.7	more control.	no
Q4:	4.0	4.1	3.8	3.5	3.5	2.9^c	more relaxed	2/3	1	0	3.9	4.3	opposite	no
Derived Scores														
Anxiety	4.5	5.4	4.7	4.6	4.9	4.4^c	less anxious	2/3	1	0	5.0	5.1	opposite	no
Extraversion	4.9	4.3	2.9	3.7	2.5	3.3^c	more extraverted	2/3	1	0	1.9	2.7	same	no
Mental Health	2.8	3.5^b	5.1	5.7^c	5.4	6.1^c	more mentally healthy	3/3	3	---	5.6	5.4	opposite	no
Creativity	1.4	2.4^c	4.5	4.8	4.7	4.9^d	more creative	3/3	2	---	4.8	4.9	same	no
Capacity to learn	3.3	3.9	6.0	5.9	6.1	6.3	increased capacity to learn	2/3	0	0	5.8	5.6	opposite	no
Independence	5.4	5.7	2.2	2.1	1.7	1.4	more dependent	2/3	0	0	3.1	2.9	same	no
SARI, Dogmatism (SA)	172.0	175.0	169.1	160.6^b	171.2	168.9^b	less dogmatic	2/3	2	0	168.6	173.4	opposite	no
Rigidity (R)	62.0	60.0	60.4	58.3	60.9	60.0	less rigidity	3/3	0	---	57.1	58.3	opposite	no
Mobility (I)	not used		54.0	52.6	54.8	54.1	more mobile	2/2	0	---	46.0	54.8	opposite	no
LSPCL	not used		65.9	33.7^a	82.4	51.6^a	less magnitude of problems checked	2/2	2	---	66.9	60.1	same	no
Motivation														
Internal	not used		13.9	13.7	15.9	16.8^c	no trends	0/2	0	1 more internal	13.8	13.1	less internal	no
External	not used		9.4	9.2	7.2	6.2	less external	2/2	0	---	9.3	9.9	opposite	no
Self-concept Real/Ideal Diff.	not used		35.5	29.3^e	28.2	28.0	less difference	2.2	1	---	27.7	31.4	opposite	no

*Intake N	N	Training dates	Life Skills course generation used in training
E	36	12 Jan - 13 May, 70	1
G-J	50	4 May-1 June--5 Oct. 70	2
K	23	2 Nov. 70 - 5 March 71	2
Moose Jaw	8	17 May - 11 Aug. 71	3
N	28	8 Feb. - 9 June 71	3
Q	24	1 Sept. 71 - Feb. 72	4 final version.

TABLE 6: Classification of NewStart and Comparison Group Trends Taken From Table 5

			Comparison Group Trends (none significant) Compared to NewStart Group		
			Opposite		Same
NewStart Trends	All in the same direction	All Significant	Mental Health*		LSPCL*
		2 out of 3 or 1 out of 2 Significant	0*, Difference Score		H, Creativity
		1 out of 3 Significant		Q_1	B, E, F, I
		None Significant	Rigid, Mobile, External		A, L
	2 out of 3 in same direction	2 Significant 0 " opposite	Dogmatism		
		1 Significant 0 " opposite	Q_4, Anxious		Extraversion
		1 Significant 1 " opposite	C		
		0 Significant	N, Q_2, Capacity to learn		Independence
		0 Significant 1 " opposite	G		
	No Trends	1 Significant	M_1, Internal		Q_3

* all entries in the table refer to the scales and factors listed in Table 5.

TABLE 7: Summary of Trends of pre-post Life Skills course changes

	Groups Compared			
	NewStart Groups Number significant trends	Comparison Group (P.A. Community Coll.) (no changes are significant)	Direction of NewStart Trends	Measure &/or Scale
All NewStart groups Show same trends	3 out of 3	Opposite	Improved mental health	16 PF derived score
	2 out of 2	Same	Reduced felt magnitude of life problems	Life Skills Problem Check List
	2 out of 3	Opposite	Increased confidence & self-assurance	16 PF factor 0
	2 out of 3	Same	Increased adventuresomeness Increased creativity	16 PF factor H 16 PF derived score
	1 out of 2	Opposite	Decreased difference between the Real & Ideal Self ratings	Self Inventory Difference Score
	1 out of 3	No Trend	Increased experimenting with life	16 PF factor Q_1
	1 out of 3	Same	Increased intelligence Increased assertiveness Increased enthusiasm Increased sensitivity	16 PF factor B 16 PF factor E 16 PF factor F 16 PF factor I
	0 out of 3	Opposite	Decreased attitudinal rigidity	SARI "Rigor" scale
	0 out of 2	Opposite	Increased mobility attitudes Decreased external motivation	SARI "Inertia" scale Internal/External Scale
	0 out of 3	Same	Increased outgoingness Increased suspiciousness	16 PF factor A 16 PF factor L
2 out of 3 NewStart groups show the same trends	2 significant & more significant opposite	Opposite	Decreased attitudinal dogmatism	SARI "Self assertive" scale
	1 significant & none significant opposite	Opposite	Increased relaxedness Decreased anxiousness	16 PF factor Q_4 16 PF derived score
	1 significant & none significant opposite	Same	Increased extraversion	16 PF derived score
	1 significant & 1 significant opposite	Opposite	Increased stability	16 PF factor C
	None significant	Opposite	Increased shrewedness Increased group dependence Increased capacity to learn	16 PF factor N 16 PF factor Q_2 16 PF derived score
	None significant	Same	Increased dependence	16 PF derived score
No trends displayed in the NewStart	#####	####	######	16 PF factors G,M,Q_3 and Internal motivation

The preliminary results are encouraging and are stated in Table 7 in column 4 titled "Direction of NewStart Trends." The trends are listed in approximate order of their certainity from most to least certain, consistent and significant. The procedure used to arrive at this order was as follows: First, the trends in the pre-post course changes were divided into three groups in terms of the amount of consistency across NewStart groups: i.e., changes which were the same for all NewStart groups, changes which were the same for 2 out of 3 groups and changes which showed no trend across NewStart groups (see column 1 in Table 7). Next, these changes were sorted in terms of how many changes were statistically significant (see column 2 in Table 7). Finally, within the categories of a number of significant trends, the changes were ordered depending on whether or not the comparison group (which received basic education only) showed a change opposite to, the same as NewStart groups, or no change (see column 3 in Table 7). This comparison provides some indication of what Life Skills training does over and above basic education. Column 4 states the trends listed in approximate order of their reliability and column 5 states the measure or scale on which the trend is based.

This analysis of trends provides a preliminary indication of significant changes pre and post training and consistent changes comparing trials of the course. These results, especially their consistency, are more meaningful considering the fact that there are many differences between trials: i.e., even though the settings, coaches, times, students and curriculum varied consistent trends still occur. In fact consistency across replications may be more important than the absolute magnitude of significance within any given trial of the course. However, interpretations of trends such as this are risky without data on regression and test sophistication effects. This data is available but has not been analyzed at this writing.

Follow-Up Evaluation

To determine the extent to which course learnings (skills, information, attitudes) are retained and transferred outside of the learning setting, a semi-structured interview was done approximately 3-4 months after course completion on some graduates since Intake E. Although the main purpose was to gather information for course development, an attempt has been made to use this information for evaluating the effect of the Life Skills course on the students as seen by the students at this period after the course completion. The interviewers, members of Saskatchewan NewStart research and development staff, used an interview guide (Appendix N) and a procedure which required them to press the interviewees for examples whenever possible and not accept generalities. In addition, interviewers were to challenge all mention of benefits (i.e., to err on the side of conservative or negative impact of the course rather than bias it on the positive side). These interviews were audio-taped and later transcribed and typed for subsequent analysis and evaluation. Each interviewer was to obtain the interviewee's opinion as to how the course affected him covering these areas of life:

Self and Interpersonal Relations

(1) Self-concept, felt self-worth, ability to make decisions and take action on own initiative, self-determinism.

(2) Ability to form meaningful and rewarding relations with people in general, friends, relatives (not immediate family); ability to participate in groups and make contributions to groups.

(3) Ability to handle personal problems (identify, resolve and prevent problems; obtain help with personal problems when necessary); e.g., drugs, temper and fighting, moods, attitudes, habits, dress and grooming, etc.

(4) Ability to handle own alcohol problems.

Family and Home Life Situation

(5) Ability to handle marital problems - problems with spouse (if interviewee is married.)

(6) Ability to handle problems with own children - child rearing, discipline, affection, education (if interviewee has children.)

(7) Ability to handle problems with own parents, in-laws, siblings and relatives.

(8) Ability to handle problems of own total family life, e.g., feeding, clothing, housing, financing, etc. (if interviewee has a family-spouse and/or children.)

Leisure Time

(9) Ability to use leisure time purposefully, use free time for personal development, enjoyment and social benefit; develop existing or new interests; ability to enjoy self without getting into trouble.

Community, Agencies and Community Officials

(10) Awareness of and ability to use community resources, e.g., educational, library, mass media, recreational, financial, retail, etc.

(11) Ability to handle problems with agencies, e.g., manpower, Indian Affairs, Welfare, health facilities, etc.

(12) Ability to handle problems with police and/or courts.

(13) Ability to contribute to community, participate in community affairs, knowledge of and ability to fulfill community responsibilities.

Job, Work and Training

(14) Ability to locate jobs or training and information about jobs or training.

(15) Ability to get and/or hold a job.

(16) Ability to get along with boss, fellow workers, customers, etc.

(17) Ability to handle job responsibilities or obtain assistance in areas where the interviewee is not able to do the job, e.g., how much responsibility given to do things, absenteeism, and lateness, etc.

Total Life

A total, global evaluation of the impact of the Life Skills program on the life of the interviewee.

The methods developed for analysis of the course impact as reflected in the interview protocals have proved unreliable (low inter-rater agreement) and insensitive to the actual course impact. Thus, the interviews are in need of re-analysis. In the meantime, certain impressions regarding the retention and use of Life Skills are available. Some graduates of Intake K received an interview after about 12 months rather than 3 and they give an indication that there tends to be a "post-course slump" present at about 3 - 4 months which gradually improves and the more beneficial course effects may begin later. This effect is due to the fact that graduates tend to come out of the course with a "high", feeling that he can handle anything; but reality is still there and the confrontation with reality causes this depression. This indicates that the course needs strengthening in the latter phases so that more of the real world is dealt with. Our impressions this far indicate that the over-all effects at 3 - 4 months is positive but not greatly so, with the most impact occuring in areas 1 and 2 listed above while all areas show some positive change.

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APPENDIXES
OF EVALUATION FORMS

Appendix

Observation Form . . . . A

Life Skills Evaluation Form -
Facilitating Effective Group Behavior . . . . B

Evaluation Form for Group Development -
Interpersonal Relations Skills C
Lesson Development Observation Record Form . . . . D
Rating of Life Skills Students by Coaches. . . . . E
Progress Report. . . . . F
Group Interview and Rating Form . . . . G
Simulated Group Problem Solving Test . . . . H
Capsule Descriptions of the Sixteen Personality Factors . I
Scale of Self-Assertiveness, Rigour and Inertia . . . . . J
Life Skills Problem Checklist . . . . K
Internal/External Scale. L
Self Inventory . . . . M
Interview Guide and Instructions; Interview Rating Form . N

Appendixes are available to interested readers upon request. Write to Training Research and Development Station, P.O. Box 1565, Prince Albert, Saskatchewan S6V 5T2, asking for Appendixes of Evaluation Forms.

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OBSERVATION FORM

DRAFT COPY

APPENDIX A-1

DIRECTIONS FOR USE AND UNDERSTANDING OF OBSERVATION REPORT FORM

A. OBSERVATION

1. Observer will record the behaviors he observed during a group session. Observer will try to record facts only.

B. INTERPRETATION

1. The observer will interpret these observations using the Life Skills Process/Content Model (the 3 Dimensional Model).

2. Code:
    1. Cognitive (Knowing)
    2. Affective (Feeling)
    3. Psychomotor (Acting)
    4. Safe (Protective) Group Use
    5. Careful Group Use
    6. Risky Group Use
    7. Not Relevant to Problem Solving
    8. 0 (zero) There is a problem but it is not being dealt with
    9. Recognizes Problem
    10. Defines Problem
    11. Chooses Alternative
    12. Implements Alternative
    13. Evaluates Alternative

C. ANALYSIS

1. Observer will comment on why he interpreted certain behaviors as he did.

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APPENDIX A-2

LESSON____________________ STUDENT____________________ DATE____________________

OBSERVATION	INTERPRETATION													ANALYSIS
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	

APPENDIX B

LIFE SKILLS EVALUATION FORM - FACILITATING EFFECTIVE GROUP BEHAVIOR

LESSON__________ DATE________________SIGNATURE OF COACH__________

Student's Name	Coach's Remedying Behavior	Reason	Post Lesson Evaluative Comment

APPENDIX C-1

EVALUATION FORM FOR GROUP DEVELOPMENT

INTERPERSONAL RELATIONS SKILLS

Coach: ____________________ Group: ____________________ Rater: ____________________

Lesson: ______________________________ Date of Evaluation: ____________________

Based on the descriptions of the scales which are involved in defining interpersonal relations skills, rate the group as a whole on their position on each scale. Put an "X" in the appropriate box for each scale to indicate the extent to which the behaviors described are characteristic of the group as a whole.

	Very low/ Poor		Average		Very high/ Good	
	1	2	3	4	5	Comments
1. Exchanging meaningful feedback concerning each other's behavior.						
2. Congruence, genuineness, experimenting, risk-taking and self-disclosure.						
3. Supportiveness; awareness of and responsiveness to feelings; accurate empathy.						
4. Group involvement, initiative and cohesion.						
5. Role behavior flexibility.						

GENERAL COMMENTS:

EVALUATION FORM FOR GROUP DEVELOPMENT
DESCRIPTION OF SCALES: "INTERPERSONAL RELATIONS SKILLS"

Certain impressions usually result from observing or participating in a group session. When you observe a group you observe the members behaving in certain ways and other members are responding to the person's behavior in certain ways (i.e., personal and interpersonal behaviors). From your observations of members acting and interacting you are to form a global overall impression of the group in terms of the scales described here. Your rating will be a form of summary impression of the total group "feeling" or "atmosphere". This rating is a substitute for the more elaborate procedure of rating each individual member on these scales and then obtaining the average rating for the group. Thus you are asked to use your head (or mind or whatever you use) to make these estimates of the group average to come up with this "group feeling" or "group atmosphere" rather than using a statistical method.

Read the descriptions of each scale very carefully and then proceed with the ratings.

1. Exchanging meaningful feedback concerning each other's behavior: The extent to which group members are willing and able to give and receive meaningful and helpful information regarding their feelings and honest reactions to each other's behavior without becoming defensive or hostile. Do they exchange feedback information with each other which is offered and accepted in a concerned and helpful manner or is it either not exchanged or done in an unhelpful (e.g., hostile or superficial) way? Is the feedback: specific vs general; behavior focused vs motive or intention focused; focused on changable things vs focused on unchangable things (things that the person can not do much about); focused on the here and now vs the there and then (past and/or outside situations); clear vs vague; tentative vs absolute; descriptive vs evaluative; informative vs ordering?

2. Congruence, genuineness, experimenting, risk taking and self-disclosure: The extent to which the group members exchange sincerely and genuinely, at a significant and important level, their feelings, beliefs, attitudes, opinions, and ideas. The extent to which their sharing constitutes some risk to their self-esteem and security in the group; the extent to which they are being themselves and being congruent in words, actions

and expressions. Do they share personally meaningful and important things which could be used against them or do they share superficial safe things? Is the exchange: congruent, wherein words, behavior and expressions communicate the same message vs incongruent wherein what they say, do and look like tell different things; risky, where they freely experiment with different behaviors vs safe, where they only do what they are used to; open and honest vs phoney playing roles and games to hide their true selves; revealing, where they disclose threatening things which could damage self-esteem and their influence or power vs unrevealing, where they disclose only safe and unimportant things or things that have been resolved long ago and are no longer threatening.

3. Supportiveness; awareness of and responsiveness to feelings; accurate empathy:
The extent to which the group members support, encourage and reinforce each other in their attempts to be open, to risk, to give and receive feedback; the degree of sensitivity (awareness and responsiveness) of group members to each other's feelings and their ability to communicate this sensitivity and understanding to each other. Are they supportative, sensitive, accurate, and responsive in understanding how each other feels or are they unsupportive, unaware of and unresponsive to each other's feelings; cool, bored, uninterested and maybe busy giving advice inappropriate to the mood and content of each other's statements and communications (verbal and nonverbal). Are the group members: supportive and encouraging vs nonsupportive, nonencouraging, and embarrassed; sensitive, aware and responsive vs insensitive, unaware and unresponsive; able to let each other know they are "with" each other vs unable to let each other know they are "with" each other; accurate in assessing how each other feels vs inaccurate in assessing how each other feels; able to respond to all levels of communication (verbal and nonverbal) vs unable to respond to all levels and respond only to the superficial level of communication e.g., the verbal content.

4. Group involvement, initiative and cohesion:
The extent to which all members of the group are involved in what is going on and the initiative is spread among the group members. Are all members contributing ideas, facts, opinions, feelings, gatekeeping, clarifying, summarizing, encouraging, initiating, etc. or are just the coach or maybe one or two doing this?

5. Role behavior flexibility:
The extent to which the various necessary behaviors for effective group functioning (helping behaviors) are spread among all group members vs the situation where each person is a "specialist" in a very limited number of behaviors. Do all members perform the necessary behaviors to help the group function adequately at the time or do they tend to settle into specialized roles and functions even when this is harmful to the group functioning.

APPENDIX **D-1**

LESSON DEVELOPMENT
OBSERVATION RECORD FORM

OBSERVATION: LIFE SKILLS

OBSERVER: ____________

LESSON: ____________

DATE: ____________

PHASE: ____________

COACH: ____________

GENERAL: (CHECK ONE ONLY)

1. Which lesson phases need revision? (check)

ALL_____ NONE_____ STIM._____ EVOC._____ OBJ.ENQ._____ APPL._____ EVAL._____

2. The relevance of the lesson for the students was indicated by:

High Interest Level_____ Mild Interest_____ Little Interest_____

3. Comments: ____________

OVERVIEW:

4. The "Overview's" description of the relationship of the lesson to the rest of the course was:

Excellent_____ Acceptable_____ Poor_____

5. The "Overview's" description of the lesson objectives and content for the coach was:

Excellent_____ Acceptable_____ Poor_____

6. Comments: ____________

STIMULUS:

7. The effect of the "Stimulus" on most of the students appeared to be:

Exciting________Mildly Interesting________Unstimulating________

8. Did the Stimulus phase present the problem situation:

Very Well_____Acceptably_____Poorly: Coach_______Content_______

9. Comments:____

____

____

____

____

EVOCATION:

10. Did the "Evocation" promote student discussion about the lesson topic?

Very Well_____Acceptably_____Poorly: Coach_______Content_______

11. Did the "Evocation" process define the lesson problem?

Very Well_____Acceptably_____Poorly: Coach_______Content_______

12. The "Evocation" process of promoting student interest in finding out more information was:

Excellent______Acceptable______ Poor: Coach______Content______

13. Comments:____

____

____

____

____

OBJECTIVE ENQUIRY:

14. Did the resources and materials provided, meet the research needs of the students?

Very Well_________Acceptably_________Poorly_________

15. The motivation and ability (time, skills) of the students to use the available resources was:

Excellent________Acceptable________Poor________

16. Did the "Enquiry" process enable the students to develop possible solutions to the lessons problem?

Very Well______Acceptably______Poorly: Coach_______Content_______

17. Comments:____

APPLICATION:

18. Did the "Application" Phase activities provide the students with the opportunity to demonstrate their skills?
Very Well________Acceptably________Poorly________

19. Did the students indicate their motivation to solve the problem through the "Application" process by:
Great Participation___Moderate Participation___Little Participation_____

20. The transfer of behavior skills to the students' real life situation in the "Application" phase was:
An actual transfer_____Implied transfer_____Little Transfer_____

21. Comments:____

EVALUATION:

22. The students' assessment of their personal effectiveness in performing the skill objectives was:
Excellent_____Acceptable_____ Poor: Coach______Content_______

23. The students gain in individual insight regarding their level of skill achievement in terms of the objectives was:
Excellent_____Acceptable_____ Poor: Coach_______Content_______

24. The "Evaluation" phase's provision for further practice by students of the skills and re-evaluation was:
Excellent_____Acceptable_____ Poor: Coach______Content_______

25. Comments:____

APPENDIX E-1

RATINGS OF LIFE SKILLS STUDENTS BY COACHES

On the following pages are lists of group behaviours. Please rate the student on these behaviours by putting a check (✓) in the appropriate column.

Student: ______________________________

Coach: ______________________________

Intake: ______________________________

Date: ______________________________

COACH RATINGS OF INDIVIDUAL GROUP MEMBERS

DOES THE STUDENT:	Never/No	Seldom	Average/ About Half the Time	Usually/ Most of the Time	Always
1. Speaking. Volunteer to speak out in the group.					
2. Speaking. Speak out in the group when asked.					
3. Listening. What is being said by others in the group.					
4. Comprehension. Appear to understand what is being said in discussions.					
5. Content Expression. Provide substance in what he says (i.e., does he make sense as opposed to just "talking.")					
6. Information Seeking. Ask for authoratative information and facts related to the problem being discussed.					
7. Opinion Seeking. Ask for opinions and expressions of ideas from the other group members.					
8. Seeks Clarification. Make sure of what others are suggesting/ saying by asking questions, restating what he thinks is meant, etc.					
9. Expresses Feelings. Express his feelings in or to the group.					

	DOES THE STUDENT:	Never/No	Seldom	Average/ About Half The Time	Usually/ Most of The Time	Always
10.	Takes Responsibilities. Shares responsibility for group leadership.					
11.	Goals: A. Help group establish goals.					
	B. Help group accomplish goal.					
	C. Help group evaluate goal accomplishment.					
	D. Show flexibility in accepting goal changes.					
	E. Keep persevering when group seems unmotivated.					
	F. Help to motivate the group.					
12.	Carries out Responsibilities Assigned by the Group. A. Accept responsibilities arranged by the group.					
	B. Carry out responsibilities arranged by the group.					
13.	Cooperation. Cooperate with others members of the group.					
14.	Fellow Student A. Recognize when a fellow student needs help.					

DOES THE STUDENT:	Never/No	Seldom	Average/ About Half the Time	Usually/ Most of The Time	Always
B. Support fellow students who need help.					
C. Show skill in helping others for whom he is concerned.					
15. Attitude. Display a positive attitude in training sessions.					
16. Accept Criticism. Accept constructive criticism from the group.					

DO OTHERS/GROUP:	Never/ No	Seldom	Average/ About Half The Time	Usually/ Most Of The Time	Always
1 Listening. Pay attention to what he has to say.					
2. Questioning. A Seek suggestions/information from him.					
B Seek opinions/feelings from him.					
3. Acceptance. A. Show that they accept him as a group member.					
B. Support him when he needs help.					
C Accept advice and help from him.					
4 Responsibilities. Assign responsibilities to him.					

APPENDIX F-1

PROGRESS REPORT

STUDENT ____________________ COURSE ____________________ DATE ____________________

We need to know:
- How well you are progressing on your course.
- The benefits which you have gained.
- Your problems which have not been helped by the course.
- The effectiveness of the coaches.
- The effectiveness of the instructional materials.

To help obtain this information we ask that you complete this report as accurately as you can. We are also asking the Coach to complete similar reports.

The Training Supervisor will discuss with you any cases where your assessment differs significantly from our observation.

SER.	BEHAVIOR, ATTITUDE, ETC.	INDICATE ASSESSMENT BY AN "X"											
		HIGH			GOOD			FAIR			LOW		
	THE TRAINING MATERIALS												
1.	Are easy to learn from												
2.	Meet my needs (are suitable)												
	HOW MY COACH												
3.	Understands my problems												
4.	Attends to my needs												
5.	Helps me to learn												
6.	Controls the class												
	ME												
7.	My interest in the course is												
8.	How hard I work (do I really try) is												
9.	Quality of things learned is												
10.	The way I use class time is												
11.	The way I complete difficult work is												

APPENDIX F-2

SER. ME AND MY GROUP	INDICATE ASSESSMENT BY AN "X"											
	HIGH			GOOD			FAIR			LOW		
THE WAY OTHERS:												
12. Help me is												
13. Show consideration by non-disturbing habits is												
14. Show interest by prompt attendance is												
THE WAY I:												
15. Help others is												
16. Show consideration by non-disturbing habits is												

COMMENTS ON ANY OF THE ABOVE RATINGS (INCLUDING THE FIRST PAGE)

COMMENTS ON OTHER ITEMS SUCH AS: MY STRENGTHS & WEAKNESSES: THINGS IN WHICH I NEED MORE HELP; GOOD AND BAD HABITS OF COACH; USE OF VTR & OBSERVATION ROOMS; CLASSROOMS AND FACILITIES; OTHER STAFF

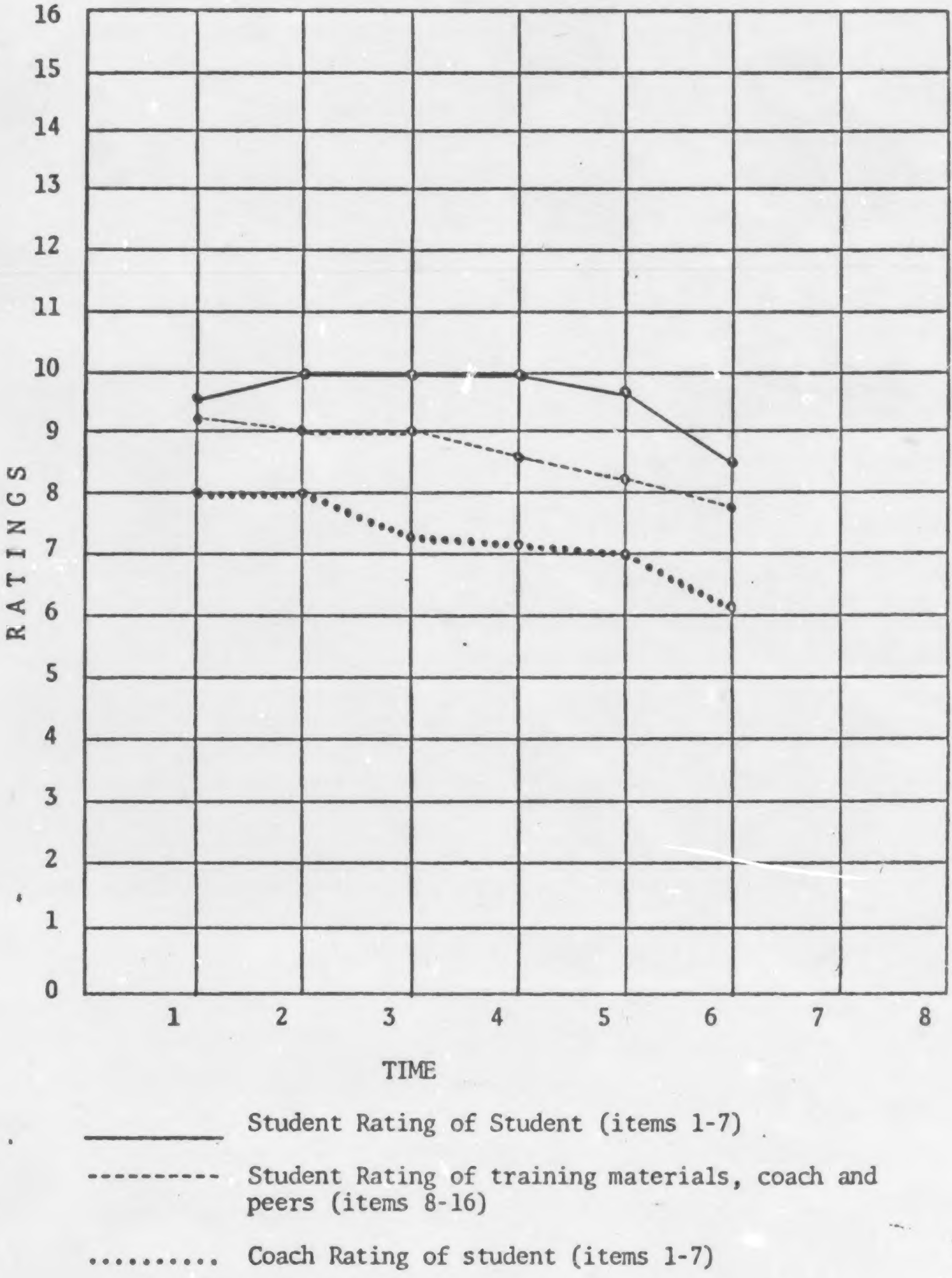
(Signed)

PASS THE COMPLETED FORM TO YOUR TRAINING SUPERVISOR

APPENDIX **F-3**

GRAPHICAL DATA SUMMARY FROM PROGRESS REPORTS

NAME: SMITH, John K-9063 COURSE: Life Skills



GROUP INTERVIEW AND RATING FORM

Instructions: Interview format for evaluation of Life Skills Groups and their coaches

Explain the Purpose of the Interview: e.g., "We are going to take some time today and evaluate ourselves and the coach to find out how good a job is being done in Life Skills."

Get A Consensus If Possible: e.g., "I'm interested in everybody's opinion and evaluation and not just the opinions of a few so I want to hear from all of you in these questions."

Evaluation of Coach:

A. "First, what do you people as a group think of the way ________ (use coach's first name) has run this course so far?"

Probe for information and evaluation in these areas:

1. General reaction of the group (from very poor to very good).
2. How directive he/she was in running the course (from very little direction to very great direction.) This question is to see if the group perceives any difference in the way Peggy and Frank behaved. How much did the coach take it upon himself to provide structure and make decisions about how things were to be done vs having the group provide structure (direction) and make decisions.
3. Getting all members of the group involved in the lessons, etc. (from very poor to very good). To what extent does the coach encourage and succeed in having all members of the group participate in a rewarding way in the activities, etc. of the course? How many of the group feel out of it, not involved, withdrawn, etc. Is there a core of very active and involved members with most of the rest on the sidelines?

4. How much concern does the coach show towards the group members in having students be more skillful in solving life's problems. Do the members feel that the coach is committed to having them improve, learn new ways of acting, learn new things about themselves and others and their life situation?

Might ask for what things they like about the way the coach runs the course and what things they dislike.

Try to get examples of the type of thing (behavior of coach) they are referring to when they make an evaluation.

Evaluation of the Group

B. "Now let's evaluate the progress you have made as a group in helping each other. I want to know what the whole group feels about these things and not just what one or two people feel."

1. Feedback: "How much does your group help each other by giving and getting helpful feedback information.
   Do you feel that the information is useful, helpful?
   Is the feedback exchanged in a concerned and helpful way? Do you think that people are telling each other the truth about how they feel about each other? Is it done to help each other or just to put each other down.?
   Is the feedback about specific behaviors that the people can change in a more helpful direction or is it about general and vague things that people can't do much about and aren't clear as to how to change?

Do you accept the feedback exchanged as helpful information or do you become defensive or mad and try to justify and give reasons for why you do what you do?"

2. Risking - genuineness: 'Do you people express your real feelings and thoughts about things and each other or do you hold back and say only nice things or nothing?
Do you people talk about things that are really important to you, your real important problems and things you want to change or do you talk about safe things that aren't really that important to you?
Do you feel that the group members words match their feelings - are they saying what they feel when you look at them?"

3. Support; awareness of feelings: "Do you people give each other support and encouragement when you try things that are different, embarrassing, risky to your own picture you have of your self?
Are you sensitive to how each other feels; do you feel that the group understands how you feel about things? Are you "with" each other and feel that if you go out on the limb you will have each others support and encouragement?
Do you feel that you can do and say things without having the other members make fun of you or hold it against you?"

4. Involvement and initiative: "How much are all of you as a whole group involved in the activities of the group?
Do you all take part in starting things or do you rely on a few people or the coach to start?

Does everyone contribute, express their feelings, ask for others contributions, summarize and clarify, encourage and so on or do only a few people or just the coach do these things?"

5. Role behavior flexibility: "Do all the group members pitch in and do what's necessary to keep the group going and on the track or do you each have a special role which you take in the group?
   Are the members known for doing one thing like giving ideas, or asking others what they think about something or saying what they think the group feels about something or confronting, etc. or are these types of behaviors done by all or most all members so that no one person is a specialist in a certain type of behavior?"

APPENDIX G-5

LIFE SKILLS COURSE
EVALUATION FORM FOR GROUP DEVELOPMENT
INTERPERSONAL RELATIONS SKILLS

Coach: ____________ Group: ____________ Rater: ____________

Lesson: ____________________ Date of evaluation: ____________

Based on the descriptions of the scales which are involved in defining interpersonal relations skills, rate the group as a whole on their position on each scale. Put an "X" in the appropriate box for each scale to indicate the extent to which the behaviors described are characteristic of the group as a whole.

	very low/ poor			average			very high/ good	
B. GROUP PROGRESS	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Comments
1. Exchanging meaningful feedback concerning each other's behavior.								
2. Congruence, genuineness, experimenting, risk-taking and self-disclosure.								
3. Supportiveness; awareness of and responsiveness to feelings; accurate empathy.								
4. Group involvement, initiative and cohesion.								
5. Role behavior flexibility.								
A. COACH'S PERFORMANCE								
1. General Evaluation								
2. Directiveness (1= very little/low)								
3. Involving all members								
4. Concern shown students								

SIMULATED GROUP PROBLEM SOLVING TEST

INSTRUCTIONS TO PRESENT THE PROBLEM SOLVING SIMULATION TEST FOR LIFE SKILLS

Saskatchewan NewStart is very concerned about how much you have been learning in the Life Skills Course. Today we have a test for you and your group to find out just how much you know and can use of the materials in the Life Skills Course. The Basic Education Division uses the Canadian Test of Basic Skills to determine whether or not you get your grade equivilancy - this test for the Life Skills Division is also to measure your progress or lack of it, both as individuals and as a total group. This test is very important since your performance will determine what you will be doing for the rest of the course; whether you go on or review or start back.

The results of the test depend on two things: first, how well each of you do as individuals and, second, how well your group can work together to come to a solution of the problem we will present to you. Each group of the Life Skills course is getting the same problem to solve as a group. Each group is also being video taped. The judges will watch these tapes and evaluate the performance of each person and performance of the group as a whole.

The problem you are to solve is a case study of a life problem which someone might have. There is no one solution to this problem just as there is no one solution to the problems of life. Some solutions are better than others and your group is to come up with the best solution or solutions that you can. The main basis for grading you will be how helpful you are in the group (how much every one is contributing and using the helpful behaviors) and how skilled you are in the problem solving process. Remember, the grade is based on both the performance of each individual member and on the total group performance.

You have the rest of the afternoon to come up with a solution to the problem that is presented. You are on your own. There will be no coach to help, no one to come in and take over for you. You have only yourselves to depend on. The person running the VTR will not be involved in any way with you.

Fred

Fred slammed the door as he went out of the house, leaving most of his breakfast untouched.

He wished his wife wouldn't get up to get breakfast for him. She always wanted to solve all the family problems while he was trying to eat. She didn't eat breakfast with him - she just sat there and talked.

Fred always had a hard time to get up and get to work. He wasn't an early riser by nature. He didn't want to talk. He didn't even want to think at that time of the day.

But his wife would keep after him to make decisions and give answers. Quite frequently he would lose his temper, and then they would have a battle.

Yesterday, he had been late for work again because of their quarreling.

This morning she had wanted him to decide whether they should get the new toaster they had looked at in the Co-Op Store or the one they saw in the store down the street.

Fred said to get whatever she wanted.

His wife said, "You don't care about anything around the house. I don't think you even heard what I said."

That did it. Fred slammed out of the house.

He was still putting his heels down hard when he walked into the place where he worked.

About an hour later, he made a foolish mistake in his work. He knew better, but the morning's argument was still running through his mind, and he wasn't thinking of what he was doing. (He always regretted these blow-ups later, and had to make some kind of apology when he got home. He had been wondering how he could patch things up today.)

The foreman came along and saw Fred's mistake. He called Fred aside and said, "I've been concerned about you lately, Fred. You've been late several times, and you've been making mistakes. Maybe you should have a medical check-up. Or maybe you'll just have to try harder to do what's expected of you."

(Form 1)

EVALUATION OF SIMULATED PROBLEM-SOLVING EXERCISE

Group ______________________ Rater ______________________

poor ——> good

	1	2	3	4	5
1. Identified and stated the problem					
2. Produced ideas to be developed into solutions.					
3. Critically examined each idea or possible solution.					
4. Selected the best solution.					
5. Developed a plan for implementing the solution.					

EVALUATION OF SIMULATED PROBLEM-SOLVING EXERCISE

Group ____________________ Rater ____________________

	poor → 1	2	3	4	good 5
1. Gave ideas.					
2. Gave opinions.					
3. Gave information.					
4. Clarified.					
5. Elaborated.					
6. Summarized.					
7. Evaluated content.					
8. Attended (gave full attention)					

	poor	→			good
	1	2	3	4	5
9. Responded to feelings.					
10. Expressed group feelings.					
11. Tested for consensus.					
12. Expressed own feelings.					
13. Was open and honest.					
14. Gave feedback.					
15. Confronted.					
16. Received feedback.					
17. Supported and encouraged.					
18. Relieved tension.					

poor ——> good

	1	2	3	4	5
19. Mediated, compromised.					
20. Gatekept					
21. Guided the process.					
22. Evaluated the process.					

APPENDIX H-9

(Form 3)

EVALUATION OF SIMULATED PROBLEM-SOLVING EXERCISE

Group ______________________ Rater ______________________

	often		——→		never
	1	2	3	4	5
1. Stated the problem in too general terms.					
2. Drifted into another step before completing the previous one.					
3. Assumed there is a meeting of minds when this is not so.					
4. Proceeded on the basis of inadequate information.					
5. Selected a solution prematurely.					
6. Tested for consensus too soon, or failed to get a response from every member.					
7. Did not listen to others.					
8. "Side-tracked" or digressed.					
9. Clowned.					

often ⟶ never

	1	2	3	4	5
10. Withdrew.					
11. Defended own ideas or actions too strongly.					
12. Prolonged a useless argument.					
13. Sought personal recognition or favour.					
14. Dominated the group.					
15. Deflated others.					

APPENDIX I-1

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

Capsule Descriptions of the Sixteen Personality Factors

FACTOR A

(Low Scoring)	(High Scoring)
ALOOF (Schizothymia) . . . . versus	. . . . WARM, OUTGOING (Cyclothymia)
The person who scores low (standard score of 1 or 2) on Factor A tends to be stiff, cool, aloof. He likes things rather than people, working alone, and avoidance of clash of viewpoints. He is likely to be precise and "rigid" in his way of doing things and in personal standards, and in many occupations these are desirable traits. He may tend, at times, to be critical, obstructive, or hard.	The person who scores high on Factor A tends to be good-natured, easy-going, ready to co-operate, attentive to people, soft-hearted, kindly, trustful, adaptable. He likes occupations dealing with people and socially impressive situations. He readily forms active groups. He is generous in personal relations, less afraid of criticism, better able to remember names of people, but he is often less dependable in precision work and in obligations.

FACTOR B

DULL (Low General Ability) . . . . versus	. . . . BRIGHT (Intelligence)
The person scoring low on Factor B tends to be slow to learn and grasp, dull, sluggish. He tends to have little taste or capacity for the higher forms of knowledge, and to be somewhat boorish.	The person who scores high on Factor B tends to be quick to grasp ideas, a fast learner, intelligent. He is usually rather cultured.

FACTOR C

EMOTIONAL (General Instability) . . . . versus	. . . . MATURE (Ego Strength)
The person who scores low on Factor C tends to be emotionally immature, lacking in frustration tolerance, changeable, evasive, neurotically fatigued, worrying, easily annoyed, generally dissatisfied, having neurotic symptoms (phobias, sleep disturbances, psychosomatic complaints, etc.) Low Factor C score is common to almost all forms of mental disorder (7).	The person who scores high on Factor C tends to be emotionally mature, stable, calm, phlegmatic, realistic about life, placid, possessing ego strength, having an integrated philosophy of life, better able to maintain high group morale.

FACTOR E

SUBMISSIVE (Submission) . . . . versus	. . . . DOMINANT (Dominance)
The person who scores low on Factor E tends to be dependent, a follower, and to take action which goes along with the group. He tends to lean on others in making decisions, and is often soft-hearted, expressive, and easily upset.	The person who scores high on Factor E tends to be ascendant, self-assured, assertive, independent-minded, bold in his approach to situations. He may at times be hard, stern, hostile, solemn, tough-minded, authoritarian.

FACTOR F

GLUM, SILENT (Desurgency) . . . . versus	. . . . ENTHUSIASTIC (Surgency)
The person who scores low on Factor F tends to be taciturn, reticent, introspective. He is sometimes incommunicative, melancholic, anxious, depressed, smug, languid, slow.	The person who scores high on this trait tends to be cheerful, talkative, frank, expressive, quick, alert, unperturbable. He is frequently chosen as an elected leader.

APPENDIX I-2

FACTOR G

CASUAL (Weakness of Character)........versus .... CONSCIENTIOUS (Super Ego Strength)

The person who scores low on Factor G tends to be fickle, undependable, irresolute, unsteady, quitting. He is sometimes demanding, impatient, indolent, obstructive, lacking in internal standards.

The person who scores high on Factor G tends to be strong in character, persevering, responsible, determined, consistent, planful, energetic, cautious, well-organized. He is usually conscientious, with high regard for moral standards, and prefers efficient people to other companions.

FACTOR H

TIMID (Withdrawn Schizothymia) ....versus .. ADVENTUROUS (Adventurous Cyclothymia)

The person who scores low on this trait tends to be shy, withdrawing, cautious, retiring, cool, a "wallflower." He usually has inferiority feelings. He tends to be slow and impeded in speech and in expressing himself, dislikes occupations with personal contacts, prefers one or two close friends to large groups, and is not able to keep in contact with all that is going on around him.

The person who scores high on Factor H tends to be sociable, participating, ready to try new things, spontaneous, abundant in emotional response. He is able to face wear and tear in dealing with people and grueling emotional situations, without fatigue. However, he can be careless of detail, ignore danger signals, and consume much time talking. He may be "pushy" and active in interest in the opposite sex.

FACTOR I

TOUGH (Toughness)..................versus .... SENSITIVE (Sensitivity)

The person who scores low on Factor I tends to be practical, realistic, masculine, independent, responsible, but "uncultured." He is sometimes phlegmatic, hard, cynical, smug. He tends to keep a group operating on a practical and realistic "no-nonsense" basis.

The person who scores high on Factor I tends to be tender-minded, imaginative, introspective, artistic, fastidious, excitable. He is sometimes demanding, impatient, dependent, impractical. He dislikes crude people and rough occupations. He tends to slow up group performance, and to upset group morale by negative remarks.

FACTOR L

TRUSTFUL (Lack of Paranoid Tendency) ...versus .... SUSPECTING (Paranoid Tendency)

The person who scores low on Factor L tends to be free of jealous tendencies, adaptable, cheerful, composed, concerned about other people, a good team worker.

The person who scores high on Factor L tends to be mistrusting and doubtful. He is often involved in his own ego, is self-opinionated, and interested in internal, mental life. He is usually deliberate in his actions, unconcerned about other people, a poor team member.

FACTOR M

CONVENTIONAL (Practical Concernedness).versus .... ECCENTRIC (Bohemian Unconcern)

The person who scores low on Factor M tends to be anxious to do the right thing, practical, and conformist. He is easily concerned but able to keep his head in emergencies. He is often rather narrowly correct and unimaginative.

The person who scores high on Factor M tends to be unconventional, unconcerned, bohemian, egocentric, sensitive, imaginative. He sometimes makes emotional scenes, is somewhat irresponsible, impractical, undependable. He is often rejected in group situations.

FACTOR N

SIMPLE (Naive Simplicity) . . . . versus . . . . SOPHISTICATED (Sophistication)

The person who scores low on Factor N tends to be unsophisticated, sentimental, and simple. He is easily pleased and sometimes crude and awkward.

The person who scores high on Factor N tends to be polished, experienced, worldly, shrewd. He tends to be hard-headed and analytical. He has an intellectual, unsentimental approach to situations.

FACTOR O

CONFIDENT (Freedom from Anxiety) . . . . versus . . . . INSECURE (Anxious Insecurity)

The person who scores low on Factor O tends to be placid, calm, with unshakable nerve. He has a mature, unanxious confidence in himself and his capacity to deal with things. He is resilient and secure.

The person who scores high on Factor O tends to be depressed, moody, a worrier, suspicious, brooding, avoiding people. He has a childlike tendency to anxiety in difficulties. He does not feel accepted in groups or free to participate. High Factor O score is very common in clinical groups of all types (7).

FACTOR Q_1

CONSERVATIVE (Conservatism) . . . . versus . . . . EXPERIMENTING (Radicalism)

The person who scores low on Factor Q_1 tends to be overly cautious and moderate. He is opposed to any change, inclined to go along with tradition, and tends not to be interested in analytical "intellectual" thought.

The person who scores high on Factor Q_1 tends to be interested in intellectual matters and fundamental issues. He frequently takes issue with ideas, either old or new. He tends to be more well informed, less inclined to moralize, and more inclined to experiment in life generally, more tolerant of inconvenience.

FACTOR Q_2

DEPENDENT (Group Dependence) . . . . . . versus . . . . . . SELF-SUFFICIENT (Self-Sufficiency)

The person who scores low on Factor Q_2 prefers to work and make decisions with other people, likes and depends on social approval and admiration. He tends to go along with the group and may be lacking in resolution.

The person who scores high on Factor Q_2 tends to be independent, resolute, accustomed to going his own way, making decisions and taking action on his own. He is not necessarily dominant, however, in his relations with others (see Factor E).

FACTOR Q_3

UNCONTROLLED (Poor Self-Sentiment). . . versus . . . SELF-CONTROLLED (High Self-Sentiment)

The person who scores low on Factor Q_3 tends to lack will control and character stability. He is not too considerate, careful, or conscientious.

The person who scores high on Factor Q_3 tends to have strong control of his emotions and general behavior, is inclined to be considerate, careful, and evidences what is commonly termed "self-respect." He sometimes tends, however, to be obstinate. Effective leaders are high on Q_3.

FACTOR Q_4

STABLE (Relaxation) . . . . versus . . . . TENSE (Somatic Anxiety)

The person who scores low on Factor Q_4 tends to be calm, relaxed, composed, and satisfied (not frustrated).

The person who scores high on Factor Q_4 tends to be tense, excitable, restless, fretful, impatient. He is often overfatigued, but unable to remain inactive. He takes a poor view of group unity, orderliness, leadership.

16 Personality Factor Questionnaire Derived Scores

Using factor raw scores

$$\text{Anxiety} = \frac{38 - 2C - 2H + 2L + 3O - 2Q_3 + 4Q_4}{10}$$

$$\text{Extraversion} = \frac{2A + 3E + 4F + 5H - 2Q_2 - 11}{10}$$

$$\text{Mental Health} = \frac{22 + C + F - O - Q_4}{4}$$

$$\text{Creativity} = \frac{55 - 2A + 2B + E - 2F + H + 2I + M - N + Q_1 + 2Q_2}{15}$$

$$\text{Capacity to Learn/ Grow in a New Job} = \frac{11 + B + G + Q_3 - F}{4}$$

$$\text{Independence} = \frac{-3A + 4E - 2G + 3M + 4Q_1 + 4Q_2}{10}$$

APPENDIX J-1

SCALE OF SELF-ASSERTIVENESS, RIGOUR, AND INERTIA

To answer the following questions, simply place a check (X) in the appropriate column.

1. The United STates and Russia can hardly get together on anything.
2. I would be unhappy living away from my relatives.
3. Many times, I am the last one trying to do a thing when everybody else has given up.
4. Communists and Catholics don't believe in any of the same things.
5. I hope to move away from here within the next few years.
6. The things I believe are quite different from what most other people believe.
7. In an argument, people sometimes bring up things that have nothing to do with the matter, rather than sticking to the subject.
8. The best kind of government is a democracy (a government of the people) and the best kind of democracy is a government run by the people with the most brains.
9. There is usually only one best way to work out a problem.
10. While everyone should have the right to speak his mind, it's necessary to stop some political groups from having their say.
11. It's not right to make people do things; but sometimes it's the only way to get things done.
12. People who can't leave their hometowns are hard for me to understand.
13. Even though I believe most people have common sense, they sometimes behave stupidly when they get together.
14. It's natural to know more about things you believe in than those you are against.
15. I like work where I've got to keep my mind on many little things.
16. Some teachings really mean the same thing, even though those who believe in them try to tell you that they are different.
17. A man's first loyalty should be to his home community.
18. When I'm really working at something, I can't think of anything else.
19. People left on their own are unhappy and can't look after themselves.
20. When it comes right down to it, the world we live in is a lonesome place.

21. Most people just don't give a "damn" for others.

22. I'd like to find someone to tell me how to solve my problems.

23. When a boy becomes a man, he should leave home.

24. I don't like to change my plans when I am in the middle of doing something.

25. I like to see new things and meet new people.

26. It's only natural for a person to be afraid of what may happen in the future.

27. There's so much to be done, and so little time to do it.

28. Once I start arguing, I just can't stop.

29. When talking to people, I need to say the same thing many times to make sure they understand me.

30. In a hot argument, I usually get so wrapped up in what I'm going to say that I don't even listen to the others.

31. I never miss going to church.

32. In a discussion, I sometimes keep "butting in" to what the others are saying to make sure I get my own ideas across.

33. It's better to die doing what you think is right than to be a coward and save your neck.

34. I like to try new things.

35. I stick to my own ideas, even though other people may think differently.

36. My hardest fights are with myself.

37. At times, I think I am no good at all.

38. I am afraid of people who want to find out what I am really like, in case they may be disappointed in me.

39. On the whole, the old ways of doing things are the best.

40. The main thing in life is for a person to want to do something important.

41. If I got the chance, I would do something good for the whole world.

42. I find it easy to stick to a time-table, once I have started it.

43. If I had to choose between being happy and being famous, I would choose to be famous.

44. People say one thing, but do something else.

45. Life would be boring without new experiences.

46. I don't like change, and find it hard to get used to something new and different.

47. I like people who are willing to change.

48. Most people make nothing of themselves, because of the way things are planned in this world.

49. I have often felt that strangers were looking at me and sizing me up.

50. I like to stop and think before doing even the smallest thing.

51. It's natural for people to feel guilty about things they have done wrong.

52. People say rude and dirty things to me.

53. On the whole, most changes make things worse.

54. I try to live the way I ought to live and do what is right.

55. The happiest people are those who do things the way their parents did.

56. I usually find that my own way of working out a problem is the best, even if it doesn't always seem to work at first.

57. New things are usually better than old things.

58. I am sure people talk about me.

59. There have never been very many great thinkers in this world.

60. There are some people I have come to hate because of the things they believe.

61. I like to do things in the right order, with time and place for everything.

62. I think it is right to do things the way they have always been done.

63. I believe that a person can get anything he wants if he's willing to work for it.

64. I always finish the jobs I start, even if they don't matter very much.

65. Many times, I find that the same tunes and words keep running through my mind for days at a time.

66. The man who doesn't believe in something worth working for hasn't really lived.

67. Man should not work too hard, for his fortune is in the hands of God.

68. Life is only worth living, if you've got something worth working for.

69. Of all the things different people think, there is probably only one right way to think about life.

70. A person who gets excited or all "fired-up about things is probably not very good at anything.

71. I have a time table for working and studying and always stick to it.

72. I usually check more than once to be sure i have locked a door, put out a light or other things like that.

73. A man shouldn't work too hard because it won't do him any good unless luck is with him.

74. When we make deals with people who are (politically) against us, we're letting down our own side.

75. We must be careful not to give in to the thinking of people whose religion is different from our own or There is only one right church.

76. A person who thinks only of himself in times like these must be pretty selfish.

77. If we agree with those who are (politically) against us even a little bit, we are giving in to them.

78. The worst thing you can do is to go against those who are on your side in front of others.

79. In times like these, you've got to watch out more for the ideas of people on your own side than those of people who are against you.

80. With a little luck I believe I can do almost anything I really want to do.

81. I've never done anything just "for kicks".

82. A group which puts up with too many arguments among its own members will break up before long.

83. There are two kinds of people in this world - those who believe in always tellihg the truth and people who tell lies.

84. A person shouldn't hope for much in this life.

85. If a man can't better himself it's his own fault.

86. I get mad every time a person won't admit that he is wrong.

87. A person who thinks only of himself isn't worth bothering about.

88. Most of the ideas you read about today aren't worth the paper they are printed on.

89. I am sometimes too ready to run down the ideas of other people.

90. In this mixed-up world, the only way we can know what's going on is to ask leaders or others who know what they're talking about.

91. Don't make up your mind about what's going on until you have a chance to ask someone you respect.

92. I think it's very important to always be on time for everything.

93. It's best to pick friends who think the same we do.

94. There's no use wasting your money on newspapers which you know will only tell you what they want you to believe.

95. Young people should not be able to get hold of books that might get them all mixed up about things.

96. Practically everything I try to do turns out well for me.

97. Too many people are not happy today. It's only tomorrow that counts.

98. I am always careful about the way I dress.

99. The "good old days" were the best for getting ahead.

100. We sometimes have to put up with a few bad things that happen to us now, so that all people can be happy in the future.

101. If a man is to get what he wants out of life, he sometimes has to take chances.

102. It's too bad that people I've talked to about what's wrong with this world don't really know what's going on.

103. I usually fail when I try something important.

104. Most people just don't know what's good for them.

105. Nothing ever happens that hasn't happened before.

106. I always put on and take off my clothes in the same order.

107. If you take the trouble to understand the world we live in, it's easy to know what will happen in the future.

108. Sometimes you need to push people around to make them go along with an idea you think is right.

ANSWER SHEET: Scale of Self-Assertiveness, Rigour, and Inertia

NAME: ____________________ DATE: __________ 19

SA - STRONGLY AGREE	A - AGREE
D - DISAGREE	SD - STRONGLY DISAGREE

	SA	A	D	SD		SA	A	D	SD		SA	A	D	SD		SA	A	D	SD
1	☐	☐	☐	☐	2	☐	☐	☐	☐	3	☐	☐	☐	☐	4	☐	☐	☐	☐
5	☐	☐	☐	☐	6	☐	☐	☐	☐	7	☐	☐	☐	☐	8	☐	☐	☐	☐
9	☐	☐	☐	☐	10	☐	☐	☐	☐	11	☐	☐	☐	☐	12	☐	☐	☐	☐
13	☐	☐	☐	☐	14	☐	☐	☐	☐	15	☐	☐	☐	☐	16	☐	☐	☐	☐
17	☐	☐	☐	☐	18	☐	☐	☐	☐	19	☐	☐	☐	☐	20	☐	☐	☐	☐
21	☐	☐	☐	☐	22	☐	☐	☐	☐	23	☐	☐	☐	☐	24	☐	☐	☐	☐
25	☐	☐	☐	☐	26	☐	☐	☐	☐	27	☐	☐	☐	☐	28	☐	☐	☐	☐
29	☐	☐	☐	☐	30	☐	☐	☐	☐	31	☐	☐	☐	☐	32	☐	☐	☐	☐
33	☐	☐	☐	☐	34	☐	☐	☐	☐	35	☐	☐	☐	☐	36	☐	☐	☐	☐
37	☐	☐	☐	☐	38	☐	☐	☐	☐	39	☐	☐	☐	☐	40	☐	☐	☐	☐
41	☐	☐	☐	☐	42	☐	☐	☐	☐	43	☐	☐	☐	☐	44	☐	☐	☐	☐
45	☐	☐	☐	☐	46	☐	☐	☐	☐	47	☐	☐	☐	☐	48	☐	☐	☐	☐
49	☐	☐	☐	☐	50	☐	☐	☐	☐	51	☐	☐	☐	☐	52	☐	☐	☐	☐
53	☐	☐	☐	☐	54	☐	☐	☐	☐	55	☐	☐	☐	☐	56	☐	☐	☐	☐
57	☐	☐	☐	☐	58	☐	☐	☐	☐	59	☐	☐	☐	☐	60	☐	☐	☐	☐
61	☐	☐	☐	☐	62	☐	☐	☐	☐	63	☐	☐	☐	☐	64	☐	☐	☐	☐
65	☐	☐	☐	☐	66	☐	☐	☐	☐	67	☐	☐	☐	☐	68	☐	☐	☐	☐
69	☐	☐	☐	☐	70	☐	☐	☐	☐	71	☐	☐	☐	☐	72	☐	☐	☐	☐
73	☐	☐	☐	☐	74	☐	☐	☐	☐	75	☐	☐	☐	☐	76	☐	☐	☐	☐
77	☐	☐	☐	☐	78	☐	☐	☐	☐	79	☐	☐	☐	☐	80	☐	☐	☐	☐
81	☐	☐	☐	☐	82	☐	☐	☐	☐	83	☐	☐	☐	☐	84	☐	☐	☐	☐
85	☐	☐	☐	☐	86	☐	☐	☐	☐	87	☐	☐	☐	☐	88	☐	☐	☐	☐
89	☐	☐	☐	☐	90	☐	☐	☐	☐	91	☐	☐	☐	☐	92	☐	☐	☐	☐
93	☐	☐	☐	☐	94	☐	☐	☐	☐	95	☐	☐	☐	☐	96	☐	☐	☐	☐
97	☐	☐	☐	☐	98	☐	☐	☐	☐	99	☐	☐	☐	☐	100	☐	☐	☐	☐
101	☐	☐	☐	☐	102	☐	☐	☐	☐	103	☐	☐	☐	☐	104	☐	☐	☐	☐
105	☐	☐	☐	☐	106	☐	☐	☐	☐	107	☐	☐	☐	☐	108	☐	☐	☐	☐

DO NOT WRITE HERE

SCORE

SA	R	I

TOTALS

SA ___
R ___
I ___

Total ________

APPENDIX K-1

LIFE SKILLS PROBLEM CHECKLIST

On the following pages are a list of problems that many people have. Please indicate how much of a problem these are to you by putting a check mark (X) in the appropriate column.

APPENDIX K-2

LIFE SKILLS PROBLEM CHECKLIST

FAMILY	This is not a problem	This is a problem sometimes	This is a problem a lot of the time	This is always a problem
1. People I live with can't agree on the use of appliances.				
2. People I live with can't agree on the use of money.				
3. People I live with can't agree on the use of space.				
4. People I live with can't agree on the use of time.				
5. People I live with can't agree on chores to be done.				
6. I feel left out of things at the place where I live.				
7. I feel that the other people I live with look down on me.				
8. People I live with nag at me.				
9. People I live with argue too much.				
10. Certain things in and around my home are dangerous or unhealthy.				

FAMILY	This is not a problem	This is a problem sometimes	This is a problem a lot of the time	This is always a problem
11. Our car is not fit for the road.				
12. I do not know how to draw up a budget.				
13. I am not sure where is the best place to get a loan from.				
14. I have trouble sticking to a budget.				
15. I am not familiar with the services offered by banks, finance companies and other similar financial institutions.				
16. I cannot get credit.				
17. I do not know how to go about drawing up a will.				
18. I buy things I don't need.				
19. I have trouble resisting sales.				
20. I buy things on the spur of the moment.				
21 I do not know how to tell good products from poor products.				
22. I am a sucker for a sales pitch.				

APPENDIX K-4

FAMILY	This is not a problem	This is a problem sometimes	This is a problem a lot of the time	This is always a problem
23. I do not know where to find information which will help me be a wiser shopper.				
24. I don't take as good care of the things I buy as I should.				
25. I don't know how to discuss sex with my partner or with our children.				
26. My partner and I are worried about birth control.				
27. I don't enjoy doing things with my family.				
28. I am worried about the behaviors and attitudes of some other member of my family.				
29. I need better accommodation but don't want to move.				
30. I feel embarrassed when I have visitors.				
31. I don't look after my house and yard very well.				
32. I waste money because I don't have things fixed on time.				

FAMILY	This is not a problem	This is a problem sometimes	This is a problem a lot of the time	This is always a problem
33. I don't bother with guarantees on things I buy.				
34. Undisposed of garbage causes a bad odor in the place where I live.				

LIFE SKILLS PROBLEM CHECKLIST

JOB	This is not a problem	This is a problem sometimes	This is a problem a lot of the time	This is always a problem
1. I would rather draw unemployment than work.				
2. I feel the world owes me a living.				
3. I cannot decide what type of work I want to do.				
4. I can't get the type of work I want in Prince Albert.				
5. I do not want to move away from Prince Albert to work.				
6. I would move away to work but my family is holding me back.				
7. I do not know how to apply for a job.				
8. I feel very uneasy during a job interview and can't seem to say what I would like to say at the time.				
9. I am not sure what all the deductions from my pay are for.				

APPENDIX K-7

JOB	This is not a problem	This is a problem sometimes	This is a problem a lot of the time	This is always a problems
10. When working I am often not sure exactly what I should be doing.				
11. I do not know how to leave a job without causing hard feelings.				
12. Other people on the job bother me.				
13. I can't seem to get along with the people I work with.				
14. I think I often have some good suggestions which might improve working conditions but I am afraid to talk them over with the boss.				

APPENDIX K-8

LIFE SKILLS PROBLEM CHECKLIST

COMMUNITY	This is not a problem	This is a problem sometimes	This is a problem a lot of the time	This is always a problem
1. I do not understand how the local government operates.				
2. I feel left out of community affairs.				
3. I do not know what my civic responsibilities are.				
4. I am not well enough informed on things happening in the community to discuss them.				
5. I do not know where to get the information I want about community affairs.				
6. I do not know my rights under the law.				
7. I am not sure that I understand the role of the police and other social control agencies.				
8. I do not feel that the law treats me the same as it might treat some other people.				
9. I do not understand the purpose of some laws and social restrictions.				

COMMUNITY	This is not a problem	This is a problem sometimes	This is a problem a lot of the time	This is always a problem
10. I do not know where to register a complaint if I feel that society has treated me unjustly.				
11. I do not know what community services are available to me.				
12. I do not know how to contact community service agencies such as police, fire department, welfare department.				
13. I don't use community services because I don't want to become involved.				
14. I don't know the function of most community services.				
15. I do not understand my personal role in the community.				
16. I do not understand my family's role in the community.				
17. I do not know what protection is available to me.				
18. I do not know where to seek help if I think I have been cheated.				
19. I hesitate to seek help and advice from community services.				

LIFE SKILLS PROBLEM CHECKLIST

LEISURE TIME	This is not a problem	This is a problem sometimes	This is a problem a lot of the time	This is always a problem
1. I do not find new ways to enjoy myself.				
2. I seem to watch television all evening whether I enjoy the programs or not.				
3. I have no hobbies.				
4. I am bored most of my leisure time.				
5. I make no plans of how I will spend my leisure time.				

LIFE SKILLS PROBLEM CHECKLIST

SELF	This is not a problem	This is a problem sometimes	This is a problem a lot of the time	This is always a problem
1. I do not have the nerve to speak out against things I feel to be unfair.				
2. I feel uncomfortable when I am with people.				
3. I have trouble getting people to understand me.				
4. I have trouble discussing things with other people.				
5. I find I put on weight more than I would like.				
6. Something can be wrong with me a long time before I see a doctor about it.				
7. I take a lot of pills without thinking what effect they might have on me.				
8. Tobacco, liquor or drugs seem to be messing up my health and my life.				
9. I don't get very much exercise.				

APPENDIX K-12

SELF	This is not a problem	This is a problem sometimes	This is a problem a lot of the time	This is always a problem
10. My life is made miserable by others.				
11. I make life miserable for others.				
12. I can't decide just what other people expect of me.				
13. I get very depressed.				
14. I drive when I have had more than a couple of drinks.				
15. I feel quilty or upset about my sexual desires and behaviour.				
16. I don't seem to share any interests with other people.				
17. I used to have more friends than I have now.				
18. I know something is wrong in my life, but I can't put my finger on what it is.				
19. I don't know what I should be doing with my life.				
20. I blame other people when things go wrong.				

APPENDIX K-13

SELF	This is not a problem	This is a problem sometimes	This is a problem a lot of the time	This is always a problem
21. My life is not as interesting as I think it should be.				
22. I hate to ask advice or help from people who might be able to give it to me.				
23. I don't seem to know the right thing to say or do in most situations.				
24. I know there is a solution to a lot of my problems, but I never seem to get around to find it.				
25. It embarrasses me to admit to other people that I have a problem.				
26. When something bothers me I try to forget it in one way or another.				
27. I get down in the dumps when things aren't going well.				
28. I don't take time to think about the things I have accomplished or to take a little pride in them.				
29. I don't set goals for myself to complete certain tasks in the near future.				
30. When I do set a goal I seem to fail to achieve it.				

SELF	This is not a problem	This is a problem sometimes	This is a problem a lot of the time	This is always a problem
31. Although I may want to achieve a certain goal, I do not plan how to reach that goal.				
32. It is hard for me to change my plans or goals, even when it has become obvious that they must change.				
33. I expect other people to change to fit my way of life, and not to change my life to fit theirs				
34. Very few things in life give me such pleasure.				
35. I spend more time and energy doing less important things, and less on the really important things in life.				
36. I'm in a terrible rut.				
37. I have trouble getting people to understand me.				
38. I have trouble discussing things with other people.				

APPENDIX L-1

NAME ____________________

DATE ____________________

INTERNAL - EXTERNAL SCALE

Below are 25 pairs of statements, lettered A and B. Select the one statement of each pair (and only one) which you more strongly believe to be true. Record your choice by making an "X" in the appropriate space.

1. ☐ A. Children get into trouble because their parents punish them too much.

   ☐ B. The trouble with most children nowadays is that their parents are too easy with them.

2. ☐ A. Many of the unhappy things in people's lives are partly due to bad luck.

   ☐ B. People's misfortunes result from the mistakes they make.

3. ☐ A. One of the major reasons why we have wars is because people don't take enough interest in politics.

   ☐ B. There will always be wars, no matter how hard people try to prevent them.

4. ☐ A. In the long run people get the respect they deserve in this world.

   ☐ B. Unfortunately, an individual's worth often passes unrecognized no matter how hard he tries.

5. ☐ A. The idea that teachers are unfair to students is nonsense.

   ☐ B. Most students don't realize the extent to which their grades are influenced by accidental happenings.

6. ☐ A. Without the right breaks one cannot be an effective leader.

   ☐ B. Capable people who fail to become leaders have not taken advantage of their opportunities.

7. ☐ A. No matter how hard you try some people just don't like you.

   ☐ B. People who can't get others to like them don't understand how to get along with others.

APPENDIX L-2

8. ☐ A. I have often found that what is going to happen will happen.

☐ B. Trusting to fate has never turned out as well for me as making a decision to take a definite course of action.

9. ☐ A. In the case of the well prepared student there is rarely if ever such a thing as an unfair test.

☐ B. Many times exam questions tend to be so unrelated to course work that studying is really useless.

10. ☐ A. Becoming a success is a matter of hard work, luck has little or nothing to do with it.

☐ B. Getting a good job depends mainly on being the right place at the right time.

11. ☐ A. The average citizen can have an influence in government decisions.

☐ B. This world is run by the few people in power, and there is not much the little guy can do about it.

12. ☐ A. When I make plans, I am almost certain that I can make them work.

☐ B. It is not always wise to plan too far ahead because many things turn out to be a matter of good or bad fortune anyhow.

13. ☐ A. In my case getting what I want has little or nothing to do with luck.

☐ B. Many times we might just as well decide what to do by flipping a coin.

14. ☐ A. Who gets to be the boss often depends on who was luckly enough to be in the right place first.

☐ B. Getting people to do the right thing depends upon ability, luck has little or nothing to do with it.

15. ☐ A. As far as world affairs are concerned, most of us are the victims of forces we can neither understand, nor control.

☐ B. By taking an active part in political and social affairs the people can control world affairs.

16. ☐ A. Most people don't realize the extent to which their lives are controlled by accidential happenings.

☐ B. There really is not such thing as "luck".

17. ☐ A. One should always be willing to admit mistakes.
☐ B. It is usually best to cover up one's mistakes.

18. ☐ A. It is hard to know whether or not a person really likes you.
☐ B. How many friends you have depends upon how nice a person you are.

19. ☐ A. In the long run the bad things that happen to us are balanced by the good ones.
☐ B. Most misfortunes are the result of lack of ability, ignorance, laziness, or all three.

20. ☐ A. With enough effort we can wipe out political corruption.
☐ B. It is difficult for people to have much control over the things politicians do in office.

21. ☐ A. Sometimes I can't understand how teachers arrive at the grades they give.
☐ B. There is a direct connection between how hard I study and the grades I get.

22. ☐ A. Many times I feel that I have little influence over the things that happen to me.
☐ B. It is impossible for me to believe that chance or luck plays an important role in my life.

23. ☐ A. People are lonely because they don't try to be friendly.
☐ B. There's not much use in trying too hard to please people, if they like you, they like you.

24. ☐ A. What happens to me is my own doing.
☐ B. Sometimes I feel that I don't have enough control over the direction my life is taking.

25. ☐ A. Most of the time I can't understand why politicians behave the way they do.
☐ B. In the long run the people are responsible for bad government on a national as well as on a local level.

APPENDIX M-1
Sept./70

NAME ____________________

DATE ____________________

SELF INVENTORY

Instructions: On the attached pages are a list of scales. The purpose of these scales is to describe your feelings about yourself according to what you think you are like as compared to the kind of person you would like to be.

Here is how you do it. If your feelings are very well described by one end of the scale, you should put a check in the space as follows:

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Fair	✓							Unfair

Or

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Fair							✓	Unfair

If your feelings are quite well described by one or the other end of the scale, but not extremely, you should put a check mark in the space as follows:

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Fair		✓						Unfair

Or

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Fair						✓		Unfair

If your feelings are only slightly described by one side or the other, but is not really neutral, then you should put a check mark in the space as follows:

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Fair			✓					Unfair

Or

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Fair					✓			Unfair

If your feelings are neutral on the scale, or if the word does not apply to you at all, then you should put a check mark in the middle space.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Fair				✓				Unfair

Important:

1) Place your check marks in the middle of spaces, not on the boundaries:

This
Not This

2) Be sure you check a space for every word, don't omit any.

3) Never fill in more than 1 space for a single word.

4) Make each word separate and independent judgement. Do not look back and forth through the words or try to remember how you checked earlier words.

APPENDIX M-2

Me As I Really Am

(same format is used for "Me As I Would Like To Be")

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
careless								careful
good								bad
lazy								hardworking
brave								cowardly
slow								fast
smart								stupid
happy								sad
weak								strong
talkative								quiet
handsome								homely
leader								follower
unsuccessful								successful
outgoing								shy
satisfied								dissatisfied
co-operative								unco-operative
unforgiving								forgiving
affectionate								cold
dishonest								honest
polite								rude
liked								disliked
nervous								calm
clean								dirty
thoughtless								thoughtful
kind								cruel

APPENDIX N-1

INTERVIEW GUIDE AND INTERVIEWER'S INSTRUCTIONS

1. INTRODUCTION

A. We are doing a survey to find out what effect former students feel that the courses they took at NewStart have had on them. Could we ask you a few questions? -- Do you mind if we use the tape recorder? ----

B. What have you been doing since we saw you last? (Light conversation to relax former student - possibly find a common ground).

2. Has the Life Skills Course made any difference in your life?*

Areas to investigate:

- agencies (bureaucrats), welfare, CMC, I.A. Police, courts
- situations - family and friends - (Leisure)
- employment area dealing with boss and fellow employees (application, interview)
- self - (embarrassment, temper, moods, confusion)
- dealing with alcohol
- store clerks - do they push you around, etc.
- bankers - budgeting, getting a loan

* N.B. What things do you do now that you didn't do before?

3. What are your plans for the future?

- Would you take another Life Skills Course? What do you think you would get out of it?

4. What changes do we need to make in the course?

5. Dealing with certain situations:

If they have been positive in most of their responses say, "From what you have said I don't really think Life Skills or NewStart has helped you at all. You could have done all these things on your own."

"It seems to me that you have been saying . . . . . . :"

"Thanks for your time. It was nice to hear what you think about NewStart. Bye for now."

"How would somebody else know that you have changed? . . . Has anyone ever mentioned this (change) to you?"

"Has anything you took on the course helped you to get along with your boss? With the police?"

"You say the course has made you less shy? How do you know that?"

APPENDIX N-3

INSTRUCTION FOR EVALUATING INTERVIEWS

Saskatchewan NewStart Inc. - Life Skills

Instructions

In order to help in the development and improvement of the Life Skills programs it is necessary to have an accurate judgment of the degree to which those programs influenced the lives of the participants.

On the basis of a follow-up interview you are asked to give us your evaluation on the accompanying rating scale.

It is absolutely necessary that this rating be a true reflection of your judgment. We want to know the truth about the influence of the program, whether good, bad, or indifferent. DO NOT give the program the benefit of the doubt. If you cannot choose between two ratings, use the lower of the two.

Here are the rating numbers you will use, and their definitions; please take plenty of time to familiarize yourself with them before proceeding to the rating scale. Feel free to go back to these definitions to refresh your memory.

-3 = programs were mostly harmful and bad; the person was damaged by the programs and has not recovered from these bad effects (the harmful effects are still with the person at the time of the interview) e.g., the Life Skills group may have confronted the person on a problem of drinking which upset him so much that he is now drinking more than he was before the course; or a confrontation occurred during the course between a man and wife so that they are now separated; or as a result of the programs and a confrontation with members of another group the person is now more resentful of that group than before.

-2 = programs were mostly harmful and bad; the programs created problems for the person which were not resolved at the time but do not particularly harm the person at the time of the interview (the harmful effects were not long lasting) e.g., the Life Skills group were digging into a person's past and didn't have the means to help the person with these past problems; the person became temporarily upset so that the basic education grades suffered; or the person becomes so involved in the program that the spouse at home becomes jealous and the home life is made temporarily worse.

-1 = programs were mostly a waste of time, effort and money; any harmful effects result mostly from this waste. While the interviewee didn't mention any harmful effects of the programs (e.g., being upset or confused by them), it was mentioned or implied that there were other things which the interviewee could have done which were more useful or profitable than the training.

0 = programs had no influence on the life of the person one way or the other (neither good nor bad) since the person had nothing better to do with his time but he gained nothing by training; or the good and bad influences were equally balanced so that the net results were neutral; or changes which occurred in life had little or nothing to do with the programs (they would have occurred anyway or were as much the result of the other influences as they were of the program.)

+1 = programs were slightly beneficial and the person gained something from them; the person enjoyed or was interested in the training but there was no long term benefit or effect. There are other ways to have an enjoyable time without undergoing training and so we can infer that the training made no long term impact.

+2 = programs were worth the time and effort involved and the person gained quite a bit in a general way; the benefits are still felt at the time of the interview but the interviewee can not say in a specific sense what the benefits are or the benefits were in restricted areas of life (e.g., more variety in meals.)

+3 = programs made a significant, fundamental (basic) and important improvement in the person's life which is still in effect at the time of the interview; a significant and far reaching improvement in one or more of the person's basic problems. As a result of the training the person has solved a major problem, or made a major revision of attitude, belief or behavior which was a problem before the training, e.g., the interviewee saw the foolishness of excessive drinking while in the program and has as a result not gotten drunk since then; the person has changed his/her style of getting along with people and thus does not create problems by being suspicious or hostile with others; or the person has changed a significant direction in life to more stable employment, more stable family life, a marriage saved or repaired.

NA = not applicable to interviewee.

In summary the rating scale numbers indicate:

-3 = mostly harmful, lasting effects

-2 = mostly harmful, not lasting effects

-1 = mostly a waste of time

0 = no influence

+1 = slightly beneficial, enjoyable, no lasting effects

+2 = quite beneficial, generally beneficial or beneficial in a restricted area, lasting effects.

+3 = significant, fundamental, important long-term benefit.

NA = question does not apply.

RATING SCALE FOR EVALUATION OF INTERVIEWS

Code Number: ____

Rater: ________________________________ Date rating made: ____________

INSTRUCTIONS: Circle the number which most adequately reflects your judgment.

Areas of Life to be rated

A. SELF AND INTERPERSONAL RELATIONS

1. Self-concept, felt self-worth, ability to make decisions and take action on own initiative, self-determinism.

   -3 -2 -1 0 +1 +2 +3 NA

2. Ability to form meaningful and rewarding relations with people in general, friends, relatives (not immediate family); ability to participate in groups and make contributions to groups.

   -3 -2 -1 0 +1 +2 +3 NA

3. Ability to handle personal problems (identify, resolve and prevent problems; obtain help with personal problems when necessary); e.g., drugs, temper and fighting, moods, attitudes, habits, dress and grooming, etc.

   -3 -2 -1 0 +1 +2 +3 NA

4. Ability to handle own alcohol problems.

   -3 -2 -1 0 +1 +2 +3 NA

B. FAMILY AND HOME LIFE SITUATION

5. Ability to handle marital problems - problems with spouse (if interviewee is married.)

   -3 -2 -1 0 +1 +2 +3 NA

6. Ability to handle problems with own children - child rearing, discipline, affection, education (if interviewee has children.)

-3 -2 -1 0 +1 +2 +3 NA

7. Ability to handle problems with own parents, in-laws, siblings and relatives.

-3 -2 -1 0 +1 +2 +3 NA

8. Ability to handle problems of own total family life, e.g., feeding, clothing, housing, financing, etc. (if interviewee has a family-spouse and/or children.)

-3 -2 -1 0 +1 +2 +3 NA

C. LEISURE TIME

9. Ability to use leisure time purposefully, use free time for personal development, enjoyment and social benefit; develop existing or new interests; ability to enjoy self without getting into trouble.

-3 -2 -1 0 +1 +2 +3 NA

D. COMMUNITY, AGENCIES AND COMMUNITY OFFICIALS

10. Awareness of and ability to use community resources, e.g., educational, library, mass media, recreational, financial, retail, etc.

-3 -2 -1 0 +1 +2 +3 NA

11. Ability to handle problems with agencies, e.g., manpower, Indian Affairs, Welfare, health facilities, etc.

-3 -2 -1 0 +1 +2 +3 NA

12. Ability to handle problems with police and/or courts.

-3 -2 -1 0 +1 +2 +3 NA

13. Ability to contribute to community, participate in community affairs, knowledge of and ability to fulfill community responsibilities.

-3 -2 -1 0 +1 +2 +3 NA

E. JOB, WORK AND TRAINING

14. Ability to locate jobs or training and information about jobs or training.

-3 -2 -1 0 +1 +2 +3 NA

15. Ability to get and/or hold a job.

-3 -2 -1 0 +1 +2 +3 NA

16. Ability to get along with boss, fellow workers, customers, etc.

-3 -2 -1 0 +1 +2 +3 NA

17. Ability to handle job responsibilities or obtain assistance in areas where the interviewee is not able to do the job, e.g., how much responsibility given to do things, absenteeism, and lateness, etc.

-3 -2 -1 0 +1 +2 +3 NA

F. TOTAL LIFE

We need a total, global evaluation of the impact of the programs on the life of the interviewee. This is a very important rating and so be sure that you are familiar with the meanings of the rating scale numbers before you do it. In your mind go back over the interview and form a global impression of how the programs influenced the life of the interviewee and then enter your judgment on the rating below.

18. Total evaluation of Life Skills.

-3 -2 -1 0 +1 +2 +3 NA